

# COUNTRY LIFE



## THE ANNALS

VOLUME XL.

MARCH, 1912

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CONDUCTED BY ROSWELL C. MCCREA

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PART ONE

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*The Rural Problem*







## CONDITIONS AND NEEDS OF COUNTRY LIFE

By JOHN M. GILLETTE,

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There seems to be a consensus of opinion that there is something wrong with the country. Articles discussing the subject are myriad. Did the agricultural population view itself as urban writers appear to view it, it would doubtless consider itself as a fit subject for treatment at the old time "mourner's bench." That certain portions of our rural inhabitants are interested in the "improvement of rural matters" is evident from the appearance of discussions of some of those matters at various kinds of farmers' meetings. But that the agriculturalists view the situation with alarm is by no means evident. In order to help clear up the situation it may be well to attempt to determine just what is the rural problem. It may be well to show first what it is not.

### *I. Negative Aspects of the Problem*

1. It would be a mistake to suppose that the problem consists in rural deterioration or arises because of rural degeneration. There has taken place in the United States no such thing as general rural deterioration. A slight acquaintance with the history of our country will afford ample evidence that there has been general advance almost all along the line in country life. As compared with pre-national times the farm population is better housed, better clothed, better fed, better educated and informed, is more productive, produces what it does produce more easily, has better implements and agencies with which to work, and the farm women have been emancipated from much of the arduous labor which fell to their lot in the period of household industry.

Indeed one does not have to recur to so remote a period as that to find striking contrasts. Many of our aged contemporaries who were reared on the farm well remember the backward conditions which obtained in matters of production, marketing, transportation, obtaining necessities of life in the home, methods of living, and education. Respect for truth impels us to recognize a great advance in the general conditions of life of country popu-



ations. It is well to remember that the "rural problem" is the product of intelligence, directed towards a province which has hitherto been somewhat remote from comparison and criticism. We have evolved certain ideals of life with the growth of cities and civilization, have brought them to bear on country life with the result that the latter has been found backward in some respects as measured by those ideals. The few instances of rural arrested development or of deterioration are a minimum in total country life as compared with the extensive slums of the cities.

2. It is also a mistake to assume, as is so frequently done, that the problem lies in the direction of rural depopulation. It is commonly taken for granted that the vast growth of urban centers has taken place at the almost entire expense of rural districts. There is a movement to the cities of rural populations. It may have its serious aspects. But it is not the problem preeminently. An analysis of the census reports and those of the Commissioner General of Immigration gives these results. City growth ensues from four factors, namely, incorporation, natural increase, migration from the country, and immigration. The first is inconsequential. Natural increase accounts for about 20 per cent of city increase, immigration, for from 65 to 70 per cent, and rural migration for the remainder, say from 10 to 15 per cent.<sup>1</sup>

Much of the seeming loss of population to the cities arises as a result of movement of farmers away from their old locations to newer agricultural regions. Practically all of the older states have been heavy losers from this condition. Iowa lost population during the last decade because the value of land was high and farmers sold to others and purchased lands in the Dakotas and Canada, helping to raise the land values in those regions enormously.<sup>2</sup>

Nor must it be expected that the movement to cities which actually takes place is likely to be prevented in great measure. The forces at work in developing civilization and which must be considered basic and inevitable are largely accountable for the movement. The matter may be simply stated. One farmer produces sustenance for the support of many besides himself. Double his productive capacity and his produce supports double the original number. Carry this principle into operation generally and it will be seen that non-agricultural communities must be depended on to

<sup>1</sup> *American Journal of Sociology*, XVI, 648-661.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 651-54.



absorb the released populations. Hence cities must continue to make large advances in population as compared with the country.

3. Nor is the rural problem one of improving production chiefly, for the nation as a whole, although there are sections such as much of the South where improved agriculture must take place before other essential things may be added unto them. The motive of this statement is not one of minimizing the importance of inducing a more scientific and productive agriculture. The economic aspects of farming are exceedingly important. Increased production should mean an increased profit and this in turn should mean higher standards of living, better education of children, and improvement in the methods of living. Farmers no doubt get too little out of their soil. Much greater results might be secured also by placing agriculture on a business basis, by regarding it as a capitalistic enterprise and measuring its business success by the extent of profits. Organization of the various factors entering into the business so as to secure the combination which would yield the largest returns, and keeping a record of all phases of the business so as to have exact knowledge of cause and effect should prove advantageous. A more equitable marketing system by means of which the agricultural producers secure a larger share of the consumer's price than they do at present is desirable and constitutes a very considerable problem in itself.

While some portions of the nation are backward economically in agriculture it is not true as a whole even as compared with many other businesses. Our farmers are as progressive in their business as a class as are the mass of retail merchants, or as the mass of small factory men. Further there is nothing critical in the present method of agricultural production. We are faced by no famine. Our exportations of farm produce are still large and promise to continue so for some time to come. Farmers are not going into bankruptcy because of poor methods. They are prosperous as a class. Admit, as we must, that it would be far better if methods which did not pauperize the soil were employed, yet this is not the fundamental difficulty in farm life.

## *II. Positive Aspects of the Problem*

1. The very center and essence of the rural problem is the necessity of securing the establishment of a new point of view, a wider



and more vital outlook on the part of the residents of the rural regions. At first consideration this may seem rather a bizarre statement of the problem, one that is remote from the pressing needs of those regions. But granting for a moment that the statement is valid let us recall in what the value of a point of view consists.

The fact of dynamogenesis emphasizes the truth that every idea seeks to realize itself in action, to get itself carried out by means of the physical organism. There is a tremendously significant relation between ideas and activities. Ideas, in the evolutionary sense, are not for playing mental checkers with but to direct activities and conduct. Philosophers may speculate about them or with them, but for the mass of mankind they are entertained in order to be put into execution. And the more powerful the ideas are the more true this is, that is the more immediate is the execution. The ideas which are bathed in a glow of feeling are the most executive. They carry themselves out most speedily.

Ideals of life and of action are among the more dynamic forms of ideas. They are the ones which appeal to men as the most desirable to actualize, are most longed for, have the largest element of feeling. But an ideal is only a point of view. An ideal as to a certain line of action expresses the individual's viewpoint relative to that section of human activities. My ideal for the farmer is expressed in the statement of my point of view for the farmer.

When talking of viewpoints we are speaking of the most fundamental factor in a given situation. A wholesome viewpoint makes a wholesome life. A changed viewpoint changes the life. Obtain the power to shape the point of view of the succeeding generation and you can lead it where you will. Hence, whatever is backward in country life is due to its outlook, and we can not hope for very great improvement until the outlook of rural inhabitants relative to the place and significance of farm life is transformed.

2. There are two vital points on which a new outlook must be developed among agriculturalists. If this can be secured all the other problems may be associated with it as incidents of attainment.

(a) One of these points is the matter of living. A new outlook on life, its meaning, its possibilities of enjoyment and satis-



faction, and as to the means which are fit to secure those ends is intensely needed. Life to the average farmer is devoid of the larger and more attractive elements. His life is a round of eating, working, sleeping, saving, economizing, living meagerly, recognizing only the bare necessities, skimping along with inconveniences, especially in the home, which is uncalled for considering his wealth. The wealthy farmer is one of the most helpless of men in the matter of finding satisfaction. This appears whenever he moves into the city to live. He still practices the stern economies, lives in houses without modern conveniences, keeps the old rag carpets, attends no theaters, goes to no lectures unless they are free, and acts as a man in a strange world or as one with a starved soul. The enjoyment side of life is lacking. His cultural and esthetic soul is in a state of suspended animation.

Such facts as these in the lives of the multitude of rich residents of rural districts make it apparent that the fundamental problem is not one of economics but of transforming farmers so that they look at life in a different manner. The appreciative qualities of life must be built up. They need to have developed the sentiment that the fullest and most successful life is the one which obtains the greatest number of satisfied wants in passing. Under this transformation the country will build good houses, comfortable in the modern sense, having the conveniences which lighten the lives of the indoor workers, and the equipment which renders the place sanitary and healthful. It will put in machinery everywhere possible to do the hard work, to reduce labor, to eliminate chores, as well as to make production more profitable. It will beautify the grounds, improve the roads for travel purposes, and look to nature as a source of inspiration.

(b) The other vital point is to secure a social outlook. The farmer has been burdened with an individualism which has been extreme and in a measure disastrous. Under the system of education under which he has been schooled it is perfectly natural that this should be so. The social side of life has never been opened to him. That he was a part of human society, that he worked under inexorable laws of markets and politics, that a community life may be made a means of satisfaction and training were not self-evident and axiomatic propositions. In fact he had no conception of such truths nor had his immature teachers in the "little



old red schoolhouse." His universe was bounded by physical nature in the shape of sunshine, rain and frost, and in a very small measure by his family and one or two neighbors. He and nature accounted for what he obtained. There were no human interlopers, save at critical times. There was no social accountability that was very persistent and apparent.

As a consequence he never caught sight of the fact that the farmers are a great social class and have a worth and dignity as such. It has wealth of enormous proportions, approximating one-fourth of the nation's wealth; numbers of still greater proportions, practically one-half of the nation's population; characteristics and interests which are common to its members and which differentiate it from all other social classes. Its work is worthy, its position secure, its future promising. But in commanding power and influence in the direction of national affairs this really great social class is lacking and manifests its extreme weakness. Only by its vote at election times does it demonstrate its existence. It has not enough power to protect itself from the exploitation of other classes of a predatory nature. It has been victimized by the politicians, the trusts, the railways, and now mercilessly by the middlemen. What it needs is to develop a class-consciousness which is self-respecting, potent for organization purposes relative to government and marketing, and which operates to secure a greater regard for its rights and possibilities.

On another side the farmer's social outlook has been wanting. In rural communities the community, sociability, associational side of life has lain fallow. There has been a reign of social stagnation and social poverty. Without social intercourse the life of the average person would be considered empty notwithstanding the largeness of the farm, the heavy yield of produce, the quality of live stock, and the extent of the bank account. In social matters, even to a greater degree than in those of finding satisfaction in living, the country is far behind the corresponding grades of city life.

In one sense this dearth is due to a lack of intellectual stimulus and ferment. Reading has not been cultivated as a source of pleasure and a means of larger information. Social intercourse of a larger general nature is likely to be empty where an intellectual circulating medium is absent. A grasp and discussion of the more important social matters awaits the development of information.



Associations of a recreative and entertainment sort are little appreciated in the country. Men of the farms have not discovered the play life. Its possibilities have not been opened to them. Organized games for the children and recreation for the adults are among the greatest desiderata of rural communities. Opportunities for these will present themselves as soon as their appreciation is developed.

Deficiencies of social contact and co-operative stimulus are apparent. Cities abound in means and agencies to satisfy these ends. Isolation has seemed to insulate farmers from each other. It is an obstacle whose gravity must be realized although its prohibitive strength is likely to be overrated. Organizations for bringing about community co-operative activities for both economic and sociability purposes are highly desirable and necessary and are coming into existence as fast as the appreciation of their worth is discovered by the farming community.

3. There are certain fundamentals which are incident to the realization of this needed point of view. They must be obtained before the larger and better outlook can be fully and permanently rooted as a part of the working capital of rural society.

(a) Leadership of a residential and effective kind is necessary to enable the country to work out its destiny along the lines indicated above. A trained resident leadership is largely wanting in agricultural neighborhoods. Young men and women who go to higher institutions of learning seldom settle in the country. Even the students from agricultural colleges must be included in this statement. The country is being sapped of its ability of the trained sort by the towns and cities.<sup>3</sup> It has plenty of natural ability left but it is not developed into a working leadership. The country is therefore forced to look to other sources outside itself for initiative and organizing ability which is required. So long as this is the case it must suffer accordingly. Every class and community must ultimately expect to depend on its own intelligence and the sympathetic devotion of its own able managers. Even fairly intelligent communities are handicapped without them.

(b) The reorganization of rural education is a necessary step toward the realization of a changed viewpoint and a larger rural life. The country school is one of the few things that has remained

<sup>3</sup> *Quarterly Journal*, University of North Dakota, October, 1910, pp. 67-79.



practically unchanged during the last quarter of a century. While farms have grown, farming has been improved, houses and barns have become larger and better, the country church has been better housed and manned, the old schoolhouse has remained as it was, and the course of study has become little more adjusted to the needs of the times. To meet the demands of the situation some important modifications must be made in rural schools.

First, they must be depended on to furnish the resident leadership which is required. Higher institutions of learning can not do this because of the leakages noted above, and because they can not touch the life of every boy and girl directly in necessary ways. A leadership must be informed on the things which are close to farm life; matters of agriculture, marketing, organization for protective purposes as well as for constructive objects, the worth and value of sociability functions of the up-building sort, and the improvement of home life. In order to understand and appreciate those things it must have a training and culture in them during the educational period. Every one must be so informed and skilled that he or she may rise to take a leading part in the affairs of the community if the ability is present. This means that the schools of the region must contain and teach the matters which are crucial and intrinsic to farm life. Agriculture, domestic economy, rural sociology, are some of the necessary and pressing subjects which must be taught.

Second, the consolidation of schools constitutes another necessary step to realize the object denoted. The single-room schoolhouse is entirely inadequate to meet the situation. It cannot supply the grading, the able teaching force, the equipment and room for carrying on work of a vocational nature, the numbers of pupils needed to carry on organized play, the differentiated housing and facilities demanded for the sociability, recreational, entertainment, and cultural activities of the adults as organized into a social center, and other important neighborhood functions. Moreover, the consolidated school, while providing for all of the above essential needs, can extend its course of study so as to include high-school work as a further qualification of that leadership and appreciative intelligence which the country neighborhood demands. The latter would afford time for the gradual and completer inculcation of the larger and finer ideals of life and teach the things which will make the



life of the average man and woman something more than a mere existence.

4. A closing remark may well be devoted to the proper point of view with which the rural problem is to be regarded. A very large part of the emphasis in the discussions of farm life has been laid on the necessity of improving it in order to keep the boys and girls from drifting to the cities. The assumption has been that the country needs them and that city attractions established in the country would be effective in holding them there. However effective this procedure might prove to accomplish what is urged, and its effectiveness may well be doubted, it does not appear to be the highest motive which may be furnished.

A more just view regards the improvement of farm life as a procedure which of right belongs to that great multitude of good people who will always be rural residents. They have a humanity in common with the residents of the cities. They have needs of life and work which they ought to realize if they can only obtain a vision of their possibility and worth. They are the heirs of the products which the myriads of the makers of civilization have created and conserved and should of right come into the enjoyment of them. Country populations have a right in their own stead to enjoy all that life offers, even if they do not contemplate leaving the soil for the city. The great problem is to discover a way by which their outlook on life and society may be transformed into one which appreciates the worth of realizing the greatest satisfactions and possibilities which may come to them as rural citizens of the great republic.



## RURAL SOCIOLOGY AS A COLLEGE DISCIPLINE

BY KENYON L. BUTTERFIELD,

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In order to define the field of rural sociology it is necessary to outline the rural problem in such a way as to indicate the main lines of thought and types of subject matter that must be presented by an educational institution which designs to serve the needs of agriculture in whole or in part.

### *The Rural Problem*

We may for this purpose, therefore, make an analysis of the rural problem under five heads:

1. The first is *the technical aspect*, the question being, "How can the individual farmer most effectively and economically utilize the laws of nature in the growing of plants and animals for human food?" From the standpoint of the farmer, this may be called "farm practice"; from the standpoint of the teacher, it embraces all of those technical subjects in the fields of agriculture, such as dairying, agronomy, pomology, etc., that help answer the question.

2. *The business aspect*, which involves the question, "How can the individual farmer so organize the factors of production—land, labor, and capital—on his farm, so adapt farm practice to his particular branches of production, and so dispose of his products, as to yield to him the largest net return, while still maintaining the integrity of his land and equipment?" This represents the individual farmer at work on his particular farm, trying to make a living from it, under the necessity of following the best farm practice, and equally under the necessity of selling to advantage and of managing the business in an economical way. The term, "farm administration," may well be given to this field of study.

3. We come now to what may be called *the scientific aspect* of the farm question, in which this query is raised, "How can we learn more of those laws of nature which concern the growth of plants and animals for human uses, how apply those laws to the procuring of an increased food supply, and how, at the same time,



conserve the natural resources upon which the food supply depends?" If there is such a thing as "agricultural science," it develops in the attempt to answer this question. This field is, at present, covered by the various physical and biological sciences, such as chemistry, botany, zoology, etc., and their offshoots—like entomology—when developed on the economic side.

4. *The industrial aspect* of the farm question calls for an answer to this question, "How can farmers as a class secure the largest financial success while giving to consumers an adequate food supply and conserving soil resources?" This is the subject matter of "agricultural economics," and has to do with all those larger industrial questions which involve groups of farmers, farmers as a class, and the relationships of the farmers to other workers and to the nation as a whole.

5. *The community aspect.* Here we approach those questions that have more to do with the ultimate ends of life, with the welfare of the people as the great consideration, and in which this question is asked, "How can the people who farm, best utilize their industrial and social environment in the development of personal character, best co-operate for the common welfare, and so best organize permanent institutions which are to minister to the continued improvement of the common, or community, life?" This is the field of "rural sociology." It is simply an application of the principles of social science to the general welfare of the people who live under rural conditions.

Rural sociology is, therefore, concerned with the way in which farm people live together in their neighborhoods and as a class. It has to do with the reactions of human character under rural environment. It includes a description of the associated efforts that minister to the common desires, needs, and purposes of farm folk. It covers the problem of "better living," of "country life" as a whole. It emphasizes the large needs and methods of the common life of rural people. It involves the question of the permanence of a satisfactory rural civilization and of the social agencies, or institutions, necessary to such a civilization.

#### *The Field of Rural Sociology*

✓ In order to make the boundaries of rural sociology still more definite, it may be well just here to make a brief analysis of the



subject so far as it relates to the general types, or classes, of material that are to be studied.

1. *The rural people themselves.* What is their status? What have been the movements of rural population—for what causes and with what results? Why have the cities grown at the expense of the country? We must understand also the social conditions of rural people, whether and how they differ from the urban residents as to race, families, health, crime, illiteracy, morals, temperance, defectives and dependents, insanity, etc. Does the rural environment produce a special series of characteristics? If so, what is the rural mind? In what way does the rural environment influence habits, customs, recreation, family life, individual traits, individualism itself, public opinion, superstition, leadership? What are the influences of nature, of the isolated mode of living, of class segregation, of special types of farming, of tenant farming, etc.?

2. We must also study the social institutions of rural life, how they are organized, how they differ from similar institutions in the cities, their special needs, their adaptability to rural conditions. We need to study family life itself; the schools and means of education, including the rural school; agricultural schools and colleges, and extension teaching; libraries; the church and its allies, such as the Sunday school, the young people's societies, the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A. We must study the associated efforts among the farmers, including clubs and societies, and the general organizations like the Grange and the Farmers' Union. We need to know the workings of government in their application to rural life and needs, including the national and state governments, but more particularly the local government in the rural communities; and we also need to study as a special field the general application of both common and statute law to rural affairs.

3. We cannot very well consider the rural problem in its social aspects without becoming convinced that the teacher of rural sociology should also be to some degree a propagandist. The rural problem itself is so significant and vital, the need for co-operative planning is so apparent, that it becomes necessary to develop a program for rural betterment, to indicate the means by which we may secure a larger development of the rural community. Therefore this work constitutes a distinct phase of rural sociology.



*General Statement of the Farm Problem*

Before going farther it may be well to make a general statement of the farm problem in order to indicate the significance of rural sociology as a subject of study, and also to show how the point of view of the student and teacher of rural sociology should include every phase of the problem and should relate the social to all the rest: "The American rural problem is to maintain upon the land a class of people who represent the best American ideals—in their industrial success, in their political influence, in their intelligence and moral character, and in their general social and class power."

*The Place of Rural Sociology as a Subject of Study*

Having analyzed the field, we may now indicate a little more intimately the special reasons why rural sociology should become an organic part of the course of study in an agricultural college. These remarks cannot be applied fully to the study of rural sociology as a part of the general courses in sociology in a college or university, and they are given here chiefly for the sake of making clear, if possible, the place which rural sociology ought to occupy in the scheme of agricultural education. We must discuss the principles underlying a college vocational course in agriculture.

1. A vocational course should lay the foundation for technical, or professional, skill and efficiency.

2. A vocational course should indicate to the pupil how social relationships bear upon one's work, how social and economic forces aid or hinder him as an individual.

3. A vocational course should show, conversely, how a person, by proper pursuit of his vocation, may and ought to make it a means of service to his fellowmen, and should thus indicate that the social motive must be present in an adequate pursuit of one's lifework.

4. A vocational course should show the pupil how to use his vocation as a means of personal growth or culture, intellectual and moral.

From the standpoint of an agricultural vocational course of college grade, in which the college directs its efforts toward training for all the main agricultural vocations, such as those of farmers, professional agriculturists, teachers, investigators, rural social



engineers, and so on, the social relationships of agriculture must be taught. Only in this way can the social character of the agriculturist's work be fully appreciated. Furthermore, the real rural problem must be understood and the need of rural community welfare and progress be appreciated, and the applications of rural leadership enforced, or else the social motive is likely to be absent. And, finally, the wonderful power of the rural vocation to contribute to one's personal growth and culture needs to be emphasized. Undoubtedly this power may be imparted through the technical subjects of study. Nevertheless, technical agriculture and farm administration, and even agricultural sciences, have more or less of the individual point of view. It is only when a man studies the industrial and social relationships of agriculture that he begins to appreciate his environment as a worker, a citizen, and a man—and may we not define culture as appreciation of environment?

Of course, when rural sociology is pursued not as part of a vocational course, but simply as a phase of social science, in a college or university, the excuse for giving it lies rather in the significance of the rural question as a part of the general social problem. While the ratio of rural population to total population is constantly decreasing and will continue to decrease indefinitely, nevertheless the total rural population will increase slowly. To-day nearly fifty millions of the rural people in the United States are living under the rural environment. Consequently, the welfare of these people and of the communities in which they live must be a vital concern to the student of the social question.

#### *Courses in Rural Sociology*

It may be asked what courses should be offered. In the college or university course, or in the agricultural college where it is not planned to develop rural sociology as a special department, two courses may be given. The first, a descriptive course, which might have the title, "The Rural Community." It need not necessarily be preceded by a general course in sociology, although undoubtedly that would be an advantage, but it should purpose to bring the student into touch with actual conditions and to interpret those conditions, both individual and institutional, in the light of the larger needs of country life.

The second course, whatever its title, should discuss the social



aspect of the rural problem. It should attempt an analysis of the entire problem and indicate not only the unity, or integrity, of the rural question, but also the supreme significance of the social welfare phases of it, and the fundamental importance of the rural question as a phase of national life.

In an agricultural college which means to make a good deal of the social aspect of the teaching of agriculture, the work in rural sociology will necessarily be somewhat highly specialized. Each instructor will, of course, work out his own problems, but there is suggested here an illustrative list of courses:

I. *Rural Sociology.*

1. The Rural Community—a general descriptive course
2. The Development of the Rural Community
3. The Rural Problem
4. The Rural Family
5. The School and the Rural Community
6. The Church and the Rural Problem
7. Farmers' Associations
8. Rural Government
9. Rural Law
10. The Social Psychology of Rural Life
11. The Social Status of the Rural People
12. Social Aspects of Current Agricultural Questions

II. *Agricultural Education.* (As a specialized phase of Rural Sociology.)

1. Elementary Agriculture
2. Secondary Agriculture
3. History of Agricultural Education
4. Organization of Courses in Agriculture
5. Administration of Agricultural Institutions
6. Extension Teaching in Agriculture
7. Agricultural Research.

There are two further phases of this subject of rural sociology as a college discipline that must not be left out of the question. The first is the need of investigations; the second, the need of a propaganda.

Investigations should be an organic part of the class work in



rural sociology. Community surveys are being undertaken under many auspices, and there are standard blanks for the purpose which can be easily utilized in class work. But a department of rural sociology should also participate, through its teaching force, in a comprehensive and thoroughly scientific study of all the social phases of rural life. We may have thoroughgoing agricultural surveys made under government auspices, or by privately endowed agencies, or by various voluntary associations. Either in co-operation with these or alone, the department of rural sociology should not fail to make investigational work a matter of large concern.

The same is true, at least in the agricultural college, in the organized movement for the betterment of agriculture and country life that may be represented by the phrase, "a campaign for rural progress," or in more sober terms, "the development of the rural community." The college has a responsible leadership in stimulating a constructive development of the rural community. It should emphasize the community-idea, enlarge upon the need of community ideals, assist in the arrangement of a constructive program of community building, help in an institutional division of labor by which the function of the various rural institutions is determined and the program for each one of them developed. Conferences on rural progress, plans for local community betterment, participation in a state-wide movement for the federation of rural social forces, are all parts of the legitimate work of a department of rural sociology in an agricultural college.



## EDUCATION FOR AGRICULTURE

BY F. B. MUMFORD,

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There is no justification for any form of education which does not give to its possessor a greater efficiency. Any type of education that diminishes to any extent whatsoever the ability of a student to perform the practical duties of citizenship is a menace to the state. Educational institutions supported by federal or state governments must be able to demonstrate that they are competent to train men and women for every useful and important duty which will be required of them as American citizens. It will surely follow as night follows day that those institutions which are most successful in demonstrating their efficiency in training men and women for a more successful and useful citizenship will ultimately enjoy greatest favor from the far-sighted statesmen whose wise plans look forward to the perpetual development of our free institutions.

The agricultural colleges of the United States have enjoyed a period of unexampled prosperity in the past fifteen years. These institutions are peculiarly the wards of the state. There are no great privately endowed colleges of agriculture. These schools of learning must, from the very nature of things, have appealed to the representatives of the people as fulfilling a great fundamental mission in training for useful citizenship. Were it otherwise we would not have seen the large appropriations, first by the federal government and later by practically every state government in the United States. These appropriations are increasing and must continue to increase if the college is to meet even in a small degree the constant demands for help from the farmers, who are continually depending upon us for the solution of the many complex problems in agriculture.

The success of an educational institution is measured by the efficiency of its graduates. The graduate is asked not "how much do you know, but how much can you do? How well can you use knowledge acquired?"

If this test is applied to the graduate of the modern agricultural



college how well does he respond to the trial? The demand for agricultural college graduates as farm managers, teachers, investigators, dairy experts, veterinarians, expert judges of corn and live stock and forestry experts is increasing yearly, as these institutions are able to point more and more to the successful careers of the men who have enjoyed the training given there.

The supreme test of efficiency applied to an engineering school is the measure of success it attains in graduating great engineers. The greatest product of a law school is the great lawyer. The supreme and ultimate test of the value of an agricultural college training is the ability of the graduate to successfully achieve in agriculture as a vocation. It is a hopeful indication of the soundness of our educational policies that an increasingly large number of men go back to the farm, and there as elsewhere are they demonstrating that a college education may add to one's ability to perform the practical duties of citizenship and thus give some small return to the state for the training provided by a generous commonwealth.

But an agricultural college is not only a professional school, it is also a great scientific institution. In it must be trained that large body of teachers and investigators whose services are now in such great demand throughout the world. This phase of the work of an agricultural college has not yet reached the development its importance demands. Greater attention must be paid to the training of men for fundamental research. Graduate courses must be offered and the fullest opportunity must be given for the development of the spirit of investigation in students and faculty. This alone can vitalize the whole spirit of an institution and is justified from the standpoint of the certain results to be achieved for the science of agriculture.



## ECONOMIC SIGNIFICANCE OF CHANGES IN COUNTRY POPULATION

BY T. N. CARVER, PH.D.,

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In many parts of the country a distinct tendency is noticeable for the old population to give way to a new population of an entirely different type. In parts of New Jersey this is taking the form of a system of farm tenancy. In this case the difference between the old population, which still owns the land but lives in the towns, and the new tenant population, which tills the farms, is not so much one of race or language as of religion and social position. The old families are mainly Presbyterian, while the new are Methodist, Catholic and nondescript. In parts of New England the new population is French Canadian, Italian, Portuguese, Polish and, in a few places, Swedish. Here the tenancy system is making little headway, the new class of farmers usually buying the land outright. In parts of the Middle West, also, there is a distinct tendency for foreign born farmers to displace native born. In some places a second phase of this process is showing itself. Foreigners of an earlier migration are being displaced by foreigners of a later migration.

Professor Hibbard has shown<sup>1</sup> that the growth of the tenancy system in this country depends largely upon the fertility and the value of the land. Where land is valuable property, the original owners prefer to hold on to it and to become a landed aristocracy, leasing their farms to tenants. Where, as in parts of New England, the land is not valuable enough for that purpose, they prefer to sell it outright to the new farming population as soon as they can find buyers. But whether the incoming population becomes a land owning or a tenant population, it seems always to be a population with a lower standard of living than that which is displaced. This is the important economic fact to be considered. Is it true, and must it always remain true, that the men with the lower standard of living shall drive out the men of the higher standard? If so, where will this tendency carry us? Will Professor Ross's prophecy<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> See *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, August and November, 1911.

<sup>2</sup> Paper read at the annual meeting of the American Economic Association, December, 1911.



that lower and lower classes of immigrants will continually displace the higher on American soil until eventually the United States will become an Asiatic colony, prove to have been a scientific prediction?

What the final outcome of this battle of the standards will be it is not easy to predict. On the whole, it looks as though a cheap standard of living would drive out an expensive standard as surely as a cheap standard of value would drive out an expensive one. In addition to the tendencies already noted in the rural districts for the immigrants with a lower standard to displace those of a higher, there is the fact that the young man from the country, with his simpler habits and severer discipline in work, seems, when he comes to town, to get on better than the young man from the city, except in the talking professions and other positions where polish and urbanity are factors in success. Moreover, throughout history, there has always been noticeable the same tendency. The Gascons at one time, and the Normans at another, have ruled France. The Austrians at one time and the Prussians at another have ruled Germany. The Magyars at one time ruled Hungary, taking possession of the valleys and driving the more highly civilized predecessors to the mountains. Now the process is reversed and the Magyars are being displaced through the process of economic competition by the Czechs. All these seem to be mere repetitions of the same phenomenon which gave Egypt to the Shepherd Kings and the Roman Empire to the Germans, except that at one time the domination of the lower standard over the higher comes through military conquest and at another the displacement of the higher by the lower comes through economic competition.

This aspect of the problem should cause us to consider carefully before we place too much confidence in those methods of protecting the higher standard of living against the competition of the lower, namely, the restriction of immigration and the minimum wage law. Though these devices are undoubtedly necessary, and would temporarily protect the higher standard against displacement by the lower, it is probable that eventually the battle would have to be fought over again in a new form. A restriction of immigration, coupled with a minimum wage law, would keep out all immigrants who could not secure jobs at the minimum wage. This would exclude the lowest classes. The minimum wage law would protect



the higher standard of living by making it impossible for people with the very lowest standard to underbid those with a slightly higher standard. This would accomplish something, but it is difficult to see how it would stop the farmers with a lower standard from buying or renting the land away from farmers with a higher standard. Of two farmers who are able to grow equally good crops, the one with the cheapest standard of living can accumulate capital most rapidly. He, therefore, can outbid the other in competition for land, whether they are in the market as buyers or as renters. Even under the single tax, the same result would follow, for the farmer who could offer the state the largest rental for the land would get it. The minimum wage law would not affect this process at all, and the restriction of immigration would only retard it. Immigration from Heaven is quite as much a factor as immigration from the Eastern Hemisphere, and immigration from Heaven is favored by a low standard of living. The only protection against this form of displacement by a low standard of living is through educational and other agencies which will tend to raise the standard of all the people; but this is ineffective unless supported by a restriction of immigration coupled with a minimum wage law.

There is another consideration, however, which must be faced by everyone who looks beyond the immediate future. Suppose this country should, by all these methods, protect the higher against the lower standards of living, and so educate its own people as to raise their standards higher than they are now, there is still the danger of international competition. It is not necessarily true that the nation with the highest standard of living must be the most efficient, either in industry or war. There is not the slightest doubt that the lower standard of living in Germany as compared with England is one important factor in her recent successes in international competition. Here is a case where the lower standard of living does not interfere with mechanical or industrial efficiency. There is no sufficient reason for believing that the still lower standards of Japan and China may not also be quite consistent with the higher efficiency in production. In short, it is by no means certain that we have secured a final and complete protection of a high standard of living against displacement by a low standard when we have restricted immigration, established a minimum wage and educated our people up to a high standard. No scheme of political or governmental



protection is likely to secure a standard against competition from one source or another. The battle of the standards is inevitable, and the victory will go ultimately to the most efficient. In other words, in the final result, a standard of living is protected by its own efficiency, and by that alone.

This suggests the important distinction between a high standard and an efficient standard. A high standard of living ordinarily means merely an expensive standard. If every additional expense added to one's standard of living adds correspondingly to his productive efficiency, then a high standard is also an efficient standard; but if it does not in some way increase his efficiency, then it is merely an expensive standard, and will handicap its possessor in the struggle for existence, whether that struggle is waged by the destructive methods of warfare or the productive methods of economic competition. The problem of the permanent maintenance of a high standard of living is, in final analysis, the problem of rationalizing the high standard and making it efficient. Otherwise it will sooner or later be driven out by a lower standard. This is also the problem of civilization, for, unless this problem of rationalizing the high standard of living can be worked out, so that it can hold its own against low standards, then, as soon as we have exhausted the native resources of our continent, and European races have lost their markets for their manufactures, our civilization must sink back to the condition of all old civilizations where the mass of the people live on the minimum of subsistence. When, therefore, we begin to take the long look ahead, we shall find that the problem of the consumption of wealth is the most fundamental of all economic problems.

Meanwhile, there is a more immediate and practical consideration. It looks as though any effective restriction of immigration was a long way off, and a minimum wage law would hardly affect the rural situation at all. How then can an American standard of living defend itself against displacement by a cheaper standard? The only answer is: by becoming a rational and efficient standard instead of merely an expensive standard. That is to say, if the increased expenditure of the American farmer's family can be made to yield returns in greater efficiency, greater intelligence, greater mental alertness, more exact scientific knowledge and calculation, then the American farmer will not be displaced by the foreigner.



But if the rising cost of living for the American farm family is due to a mere demand for luxury, for expensive vices, and for ostentation, there is no power on earth which will protect his standard of living. Such a farmer is handicapped in competition with the more simple minded foreigner, and the latter will offer such prices for land as the former will not be able to pay. Being unable to maintain a family on such a standard, this type of American farmer will sacrifice his desire for a family, will have fewer children or none at all, and, in a few generations, will disappear altogether.

The change in the characteristics of our rural population is, from the point of view just discussed, merely a phase of the universal struggle among standards of living, and here, as elsewhere, efficiency wins. Whether we like it or not, this struggle is going to continue, and the victory is going to continue to fall on the side of efficiency. The sooner we accept this fact, and make up our minds to adjust ourselves to it, the better it will be for us.







PART TWO

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*Rural Industrial Problems*







## FARM TENANCY IN THE UNITED STATES

BY BENJAMIN HORACE HIBBARD,  
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Are we becoming a nation of landlords and tenants? The question has been asked many times during the past quarter century, and very many times it has been answered in the affirmative. Tenancy has on the other hand frequently been called a stepping stone to ownership on the ground that a young man starting out as a farmer rents land for a few years, and later buys. That this is true to a great degree cannot be doubted since it has been shown by the census statistics that farmers of the lower age groups are more largely tenants than owners, while in the higher age groups tenants become few, and owners many. However, for the country as a whole, the proportion of tenancy seems to be increasing at a positive, though not rapid rate, suggesting that the stepping-stones of tenancy are getting somewhat farther apart and the passage over them to the ownership beyond becoming correspondingly more difficult of accomplishment. Possibly one or the other of these answers is correct, but before accepting either it will be well to make an analytical study of the case, since the United States is much too large, the farms too varied in character, and the farmers themselves too unlike to permit of many broad, safe generalizations.

With the possible exception of the negroes of the South there is no tenant class of farmers. That is to say, there are no considerable numbers of farmers who look upon themselves, or who may properly be looked upon, as probable life-long tenants. In contrast to this situation a great part of the English farmers have little prospect of becoming land owners, many in fact not even wishing to buy land since the return on money so invested is less than on other investments which they are disposed to make. In this country very few farmers rent land from choice, preferring, in substantially all cases it may be assumed, to become owners as soon as circumstances will permit.

The authentic history of tenancy in America extends over a period of but thirty years, 1880 being the first time a census of farm tenure was made. The following table shows for the United



States as a whole, and for the five geographic divisions, the percentage of tenant farms to all farms at each census year, 1880 to 1910.

PER CENT OF TENANCY 1880 TO 1910

	1910	1900	1890	1880
United States .....	37.0	35.3	28.4	25.5
North Atlantic division .....	18.2	20.8	18.4	16.0
South Atlantic division .....	45.9	44.2	38.5	36.1
North Central division .....	28.9	27.9	33.4	20.5
South Central division .....	51.7	48.6	38.5	36.2
Western division .....	14.1	16.6	12.1	14.0

It will be noticed that from 1880 to 1900, not only for the whole country, but for all of the geographic divisions except one, the proportion of tenant to owned farms shows an uninterrupted increase. In 1880 out of every hundred farms in the United States 25 were operated by tenants, by 1890 the number had risen to 28, by 1900 to 35 and stands for the last census at 37. The number of tenant farms increased 130 per cent during the thirty years, while the owned farms increased but 34 per cent. If the same rates of increase should continue for another thirty years, one-half of all the farms of the country would be in the hands of tenants.

However, the rate of increase for the country as a whole has already slackened, and for the North Atlantic division, the Western division and four states of the South Atlantic division there has been a decrease in the proportion of tenant farms. In other words there has been a decrease in tenancy in the whole of the East to the north of North Carolina and in the greater part of the West including the western border of the Great Plains and from there to the Pacific Ocean. In number of states and in area, these two regions comprise about half of the United States. This leaves the Mississippi Valley, the Gulf States and three Southern States bordering on the Atlantic as the region within which the number of tenants has gained on the number of owners. It may be noted further that within the group of states in which the proportion of tenancy has decreased, it was already lower than the average for the country, and conversely in the sections in which it has increased, it was already high. That is to say, the movement had been in progress for a considerable length of time so far as a drawing apart of the proportion of tenancy in these sections was concerned, except that in the groups of states in which the decline in



the proportion of tenancy has recently occurred there had previously been an advance at a slow, instead of a rapid rate. It is in the great grain-growing districts of the Middle West, and in the cotton and rice growing districts of the South, that tenancy has reached its greatest height and still shows the greatest tendency to increase. In the North the increase in tenancy is associated mainly with the land highest in price, and moreover, with land which has increased in price more rapidly than any other great amount of land in the country. In the South, tenancy is more prevalent than anywhere else in the United States and follows mainly the line of crops produced by the Negroes, for the most part cotton. Where the most cotton is grown the proportion of Negro farmers is highest, and there also the percentage of tenancy is highest. The difference between the tenant of the upper Mississippi Valley and the lower Mississippi Valley is very marked.

In the North he has, with few exceptions, enough farm equipment of his own to enable him to get along independently of the landlord in that regard. He owns probably a thousand dollars worth of live stock and implements. He rents a farm varying little in size from the average of the district in which he lives, perhaps 160 acres in Iowa, or 240 acres in South Dakota. The value of the land is about the average for all land of the neighborhood in which it is located, about \$100 an acre in Iowa, more than that in Illinois and less farther west and north. Thus the tenant of this part of the country owns a considerable amount of property and is in charge of a farm worth from ten to twenty thousand dollars. In the South a tenant usually owns very little live stock and very little in the form of implements, both classes of equipment being furnished in great numbers of cases by the landlord. Moreover, he rents a small instead of a large farm, usually 20 to 40 acres, and instead of managing it independently, works under the direction of his landlord. In neither East nor West are the tenant conditions so clear cut as in the Middle West or the South, due apparently to the prevalence of a greater proportion of specialized types of farming, some of which are quite usually carried on by tenants, some quite seldom.

Viewing the geographic divisions of states separately it is to be seen that the proportion of tenant farms follows in many cases quite closely the value of land per acre, in other cases the value



of farms as units, while in still other cases the determining factor seems very clearly to be the character of the farming to which the district is adapted. Beginning with the North Atlantic States it may be noticed that the value of land per acre corresponds very closely to the rate of tenancy. Counting New England as a unit, since some of the states are too small and too thickly dotted with cities to permit of a fair comparison with the states having great areas of farm land, the rank in value of land and in tenancy corresponds exactly.

As compared to the North Central States, the value of land for this whole group is low. The highest value per acre found in any one of the North Atlantic States is in New Jersey, and it is slightly below the average for the North Central States as a whole. Likewise the proportion of tenancy is lower. For New England the value of land is decidedly low, and correspondingly, the rate of tenancy is lower than in any other of the older states of the Union. Some important variations in the relation of price of land to rate of tenancy are found in the vicinity of the cities where there are a great number of suburban homes with sufficient land to be counted as farms. These are, with few exceptions, owned by their occupants and the value is above the amount justified by the agricultural capacity of the land.

Nevertheless the highest proportion of tenancy is found in connection with land highest in price within the states in which general agriculture predominates. For example in Pennsylvania, by dividing the counties into three groups on the basis of land values, it is found that in the group of highest price, 29 per cent of the farms are operated by tenants, in the group of medium price, 21 per cent are so operated, and in the group of lowest priced land the percentage is 16. A similar situation is found in New York, except that the difference between the first and second groups is very much less, due undoubtedly to the ownership of suburban homes mentioned above. In New England the case is complicated by the suburban home—sometimes in reality many miles from the city—and by the various kinds of specialized farming, particularly fruit farming. In New Jersey the greatest percentage of tenancy is on land of medium price, the suburban homes and the fruit farms being plentiful enough to over-balance the tendency of the general farming districts.



In this section of the country the type of farming shows a clearer line of demarkation between owner and tenant than does value of land. The tenants here, as elsewhere, gravitate toward the farms suited to their immediate wants and powers. The tenant wants an opportunity to make quick returns from small capital. He wants quick returns because he is not financially able to make long-time investments and his short-time investment must be a relatively small one; if he had the means he would buy a farm and cease at once to be a tenant. Hence the tenant wants a farm of such a character that he may be able to go upon it with small equipment and in the space of a single season produce crops which, within the year, may be sold. It is not surprising, therefore, to find the tenants producing much more than their proportional share of the grain. In New York, for example, they grow 50 per cent more than their share of wheat; in Pennsylvania, 75 per cent more, and in New Jersey, 76 per cent more. The same principle holds true in connection with the other leading field crops, corn, oats, hay and forage. Within the counties of all of these states in which the grain crops predominate, the percentage of tenancy is above that for the states as units, and although the land on which such crops are grown is not the highest in price of any in the states, it is well above the average.

As a rule tenants keep much less live stock than do land-owning farmers. The reasons for this are clear. They are not able to make the initial investment; they are likely to move every few years and it is not convenient to move live stock and fit the numbers to the barn room and pasture of the newly occupied farm. Moreover, the landlord, while he usually professes to want a tenant who will keep live stock, is seldom anxious to provide the necessary facilities for doing so, and even if one landlord would, the next probably would not, and the tenant does not wish to take the chances. A notable exception to the small amount of live stock kept by tenants is found in connection with the dairy industry, particularly of New York and Pennsylvania. To begin with, dairying is a well-developed business among the farmers of these states, a large number of farms being adapted to it and equipped for it. Hence if a tenant dairyman moves he is likely to be able to find another dairy farm not far away. The question will at once arise—how can the dairy tenant invest in a herd of cows and all that goes



with it to equip a dairy, while other tenants are unable to keep much live stock? The answer is that he cannot in most cases, but in order to find tenants for dairy farms the landlords have solved the problem by furnishing a large part of the equipment, sometimes all, sometimes half of the cows, and making the tenant a partner in the conduct of the business. This arrangement is not at all usual in the West.

One of the leading types of farming in the East is that of growing fruit. In this connection the tendency in respect to the tenant question is clear cut. The tenant is not a fruit farmer. In the first place the growing of fruit is a continuous process to be begun one year and carried through several, even through decades. The tenant cannot be secure in his possession of a farm long enough to warrant him in planting orchards and vineyards. On the other hand he is rarely such a good fruit grower as to make it desirable on the part of a landlord to trust him with a fruit farm already developed. The State of New Jersey furnishes a good example of the facts of tenancy in its relation to fruit growing. In the counties where the most fruit is produced, the rate of tenancy is in several instances but about half that for the state, and the rate for the state is but about two-thirds as high as for the United States as a whole.

Vegetables, on the other hand, are to a very great extent produced by tenants. As a rule the best available vegetable land is high in price, often high because of other possible uses, and the income from it therefore more or less incidental. It is often rented out for cash to residents of the cities or towns who find it impossible to buy such land, but who are able to plant, tend and sell vegetables, beginning and finishing the process within a year, and so are not seriously inconvenienced by moving if need be from year to year. Some vegetable crops especially seem to fit into a system of tenancy; for example, potatoes, sweet potatoes and tomatoes are grown in various districts to a much greater extent by tenants than by owners.

In the Middle West the tenancy situation is relatively simple, since the types of farming predominating there are fewer and less complex than in the East. For this reason the leading characteristics of the tenant and the tenant farms are more easily traced. There is, however, a very wide range in the character and value of



farm land within the Middle West. For instance, farms in central Illinois are selling for \$200 and even \$300 per acre, while in western North Dakota, or northern Minnesota quotations of five-dollar land are still being made. These are important facts from the standpoint of farm ownership and tenancy. The first and most general fact in explanation of the situation is the coincidence of high value of land and a high proportion of tenant farms. In nine states of the twelve in the North Central division, the rank in tenancy and the rank in value of land, are remarkably similar, the order being from the standpoint of land value, Illinois, Iowa, Indiana, Ohio, Missouri, Minnesota, South Dakota, Michigan, North Dakota; from the standpoint of tenancy, Illinois, Iowa, Indiana, Missouri, Ohio, South Dakota, Minnesota, Michigan, North Dakota. It will be noticed that Wisconsin, Kansas and Nebraska are not included in this ranking. In Wisconsin tenancy has been lower than in other states of this section as far back as the record goes. This is due no doubt mainly to the large numbers of Germans and Norwegians who always buy land where it is possible to do so; to the prevalence of the dairy industry which in the Middle West is carried on very little by tenants; and to the fact that Wisconsin is not as well adapted as most other states of the section to grain farming on the extensive plan. In Kansas and Nebraska the proportion of tenancy is high in proportion to the price of land. Great numbers of speculators from farther east have gone into these states to buy land, and not wishing to farm it themselves have offered it for rent. In no other part of the United States does the tenant find a better chance to do a big business of the extensive farming type than here. He can use as big plows and harrows and seeders as are made. He can sow in the spring and sell in the fall. In Minnesota and the Dakotas, where conditions are somewhat similar, there is still too much unoccupied land to permit of finding tenants. The tenant of other sections is moving there in order to buy for himself, thus making the proportion of owned farms high, and tenant farms low.

On the highest-priced land of Illinois and Iowa, the proportion of tenancy is increasing rapidly, the size of the farm increasing, and the number of rural people per square mile, decreasing. It all seems to be part of a general movement. The land is getting too high in price for a young man to buy. He must be a tenant for



some years at best, and then the chances are that he will move to a section of country where land is cheaper. But on this high-priced land the tenant can grow grain to fair advantage without great outlay. Meanwhile the owner of the land is looking for only modest returns in the form of rent, since he expects the land itself to increase in value. He believes the fertility of the soil will not be depleted seriously during the time he owns it, and therefore takes no very vital interest keeping it up to its best. This attitude suits the tenant since his interest in the fertility of this particular soil will cease with the termination of his last lease contract and he expects that time to be no great distance off. The whole tenant regime is in this way one of soil exploitation and speculation. The buildings are worth but about five-sixths as much on tenant farms as on owned farms, though the implements owned by the tenant are but little below in value those of the land-owning farmer. The tenant is not noticeably short of equipment in the form of implements. In the matter of cattle and sheep he has but about three-fourths of his proportional share, and he produces a like proportion of the hay and forage crop. It is as a grain farmer that the tenant ranks high. In the production of corn especially the tenant excels, raising one-third more than his relative amount. The same condition holds, though to a less degree, with respect to the production of nearly all other grain crops, though in this division of states low-priced land farmed by the owner is characteristic of the wheat regions and in consequence the higher proportion of wheat is here grown by land owners.

Around the outer portion of this group of states is a belt of country in which tenancy is not so prevalent as in the central portion. In southern and eastern Ohio sheep raising and dairying are the leading types of farming. In Michigan there is much cheap land and much fruit land. In Wisconsin the northern portion is still within reach of the farmer of moderate means. The same is true of Minnesota, while in the Dakotas and Nebraska and Kansas there still remains a little government land to be had at small price or homesteaded. In Missouri, the Ozark district is being sold out in small tracts, largely, for fruit farms. In southern Illinois and Indiana, the character of the country is such that the price of land has remained low. Throughout this entire belt, the rate of tenancy is below half that of the average for the division as a whole.



In the Western division of states, eleven in number, comprising two-fifths of the entire area of the United States, the number of farms is small, though the character of the agriculture is greatly varied. The proportion of tenancy is for the whole division low, but far from uniformly distributed. The general facts noted in connection with the East and Middle West hold good also in the far West. Here are a larger number of fruit farms in proportion to all farms than anywhere else in the United States. At the same time there are many vegetable farms, while in some sections the genuine grain farms are found in great numbers. The fruit farms are almost altogether in the hands of owners, the vegetable farms very largely in the hands of tenants, while in the grain farming districts although the greater proportion are in the hands of owners, the tenants are in evidence in larger numbers than for the whole division on an average. For example in southeastern Washington a million acres have been added to the wheat fields within a decade, and in this district the tenants are much more numerous than in any other part of the state; they raise much more than their proportional share of the wheat. In the counties of Washington in which fruit growing has had its greatest development tenancy is the lowest of any in the state. The same is true of Oregon, California, and Colorado, the three states in which fruit growing has reached its greatest development in the West.

In all of the Western division of states the proportion of tenancy is low on account of the great numbers of farms recently acquired from the government in the form of homesteads, Carey Act entries and otherwise. These farms are almost necessarily counted as owned farms for several years at least, and since it is difficult to find tenants where land is so easily obtained under ownership, it is likely to be farmed by the owner or not at all. Another class of farms, nearly all of which are operated by owners, are those on which live stock is the main source of income. Thus the live stock and fruit industries, together with the abundance of cheap land suffice to keep the proportion of tenants at proportion but two-fifths as high as that for the United States as a whole.

In the four northern states of the South Atlantic division the proportion of tenancy has decreased during the past decade. These states join the North Atlantic States, and unquestionably the movement over the North Atlantic States together with these four, is a



common one. In these four states the type of farming is quite like that of the states immediately to the north. For example, there has been recently a great development in fruit growing. Farms have decreased a little in average size. The amount of grain grown has declined. All of these facts point toward ownership rather than tenancy. Farther to the south, and this is the real South, the proportion of tenancy has been on the increase throughout the entire period since 1880. In these states the situation is essentially different from that of any part of the country. Here, and here only, is there a tenant class—that is to say, the Negroes. Land owners in this section of the country expect to continue some sort of a renting plan permanently. Probably the main reason for this is the difficulty of hiring labor. Since the freeing of the Negroes they have not been a reliable class as farm laborers. After the close of the reconstruction period a system of tenancy developed, ranging from the irresponsible tenant to whom equipment and provisions are furnished in advance of the crop produced, and who, in turn, has little hope of receiving anything more than enough to square him with the landlord, to the cash tenant who pays his rent actually in cash, but of the latter class there are very few. The more usual type is the “standing renter” who delivers a certain prescribed quantity of crop. Socially, he is more independent than the share tenant, economically, he probably is not.

This system of tenancy has often been condemned as malicious, since the tenant seldom makes little more than a bare living and since it is difficult under it to establish a good system of crop rotation, the Negro preferring, wherever possible, to grow cotton and little or nothing else. Nevertheless, it has its good features. Under it the Negro is learning the responsibilities of farm management and is slowly but surely bettering his economic position. Unquestionably the status of the tenant is better than that of the laborer who works here and there by the day, and, for the most part, better than that of the regularly employed laborers. Although the Negroes are acquiring more and more land as the years pass, it is altogether probable that the system of tenancy now prevailing will, with modifications, continue for a long time to come—that is to say, there will be among the Negroes a very large number of tenants. At the present time, in some of the leading cotton-growing counties of Mississippi, the proportion of Negro farmers is



above 90 per cent and at the same time the proportion of tenant farmers is above 90 per cent—the Negro farmers and the tenants being for the most part the same.

Tenancy is not necessarily bad, though as found in this country it has some very undesirable features. The tenant is a transient, and it is useless to insist that the contract should be made for a long period of years. The landlord himself, who often complains because tenants move so frequently, usually wants to reserve the right to sell his land, and terminate the lease with the sale. The majority of northern landlords are speculators in the sense that they are watching for a chance to sell or buy farms whenever opportunity for profit in doing so presents itself. This being the case tenant problems are subsidiary to the speculative program. It will be difficult to evolve a good system of tenancy while this condition lasts. In the South farms are much more often viewed as permanent possessions, and there tenancy plans can more readily be put into practice.

The tenant takes little interest in community affairs. The questions of schools, churches, or roads are of small moment to him. He does not wish to invest in enterprises which will of necessity be left wholly, and gratuitously, to his successor. He is little concerned with farmers' organizations. In short, he is in a community but hardly of it. These facts, together with his tendency to exploit the soil are reasons enough why ownership is a better system than tenancy. On the other hand, tenancy often makes ownership possible. A better credit system, and a more economical means of marketing farm produce and buying provisions and supplies would go a long way toward enabling the tenant to buy land at an earlier period of life. Likewise when land ceases to rise so rapidly in value the landlord will learn to watch less anxiously for a chance to sell and take more interest in developing a desirable relationship between himself and the man who tills his land. Until these conditions arrive there will be much to be desired in the American system of tenancy.



## AGRICULTURAL LABORERS IN THE UNITED STATES

BY JOHN LEE COULTER,

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The Census of 1900 is authority for the statement that the number of persons engaged in agriculture was, at that time, slightly more than 10,000,000. Since the number of farms in 1900 was reported to be 5,740,000, it is clear that the number of agricultural laborers was less than two per farm. In order to understand what is meant by "agricultural laborers" it might be noted that this included all persons ten years of age and over employed in agriculture. If we subtract the total number of regular resident farmers from the number of persons engaged in agriculture we have remaining slightly more than 4,500,000 persons. This includes members of farmers' families in addition to hired laborers.

The Census of 1900 further shows that the average laborer's income, for each person engaged in agriculture, slightly exceeded \$288 in the United States as a whole. Since the amount expended for hired labor by all resident farmers in the United States in 1899 was nearly \$355,000,000, it is clear that there must have been at least 1,231,000 hired laborers and the number probably equaled 1,500,000 or more, inasmuch as many of these laborers were not employed for the entire year. Further study brings us to the conclusion that probably 3,000,000 of the persons engaged in agriculture referred to are members of the farmers' families.

Without this analysis, and it should be greatly enlarged upon, it is practically impossible to give any intelligent report concerning the status of agricultural laborers in the United States, and even with this brief statement it is very difficult to summarize the question satisfactorily. We may say, however, in a general way that there were slightly less than 6,000,000 resident farmers. Of course we are safe in concluding that practically all of these live in some kind of a farm home, and, therefore, we may say, that at that time, there were nearly 6,000,000 farm homes. Some of these may have been in small towns and villages. We may also conclude that in addition to the heads of the families there were some 3,000,000 mem-



bers of the families over ten years of age who worked for their living on the farms. This doubtless represents quite closely the number of grown sons who had remained on the farm and who had not yet established separate farm homes. We may safely conclude that this 3,000,000 lived in the homes of their parents, and, therefore, probably nearly 9,000,000 of the persons gainfully employed in agriculture lived in homes in the open country. This leaves probably less than 1,500,000 hired laborers who very largely move from farm to farm seeking employment where they may. It is also doubtless true that many of these same transient laborers secure employment during a considerable part of the year in cities and villages as well as in lumber camps, on railroads, etc.

It would not be quite correct to conclude from this general survey that nearly 9,000,000 of the persons engaged in agriculture represent the unchanging farm laborer class, and that the 1,500,000 represent the transient employees, because as a matter of fact there is a very large amount of changing constantly going on among the 9,000,000. It should be noted in passing that more than 2,000,000 of the less than 6,000,000 farms—that is to say more than thirty-five per cent of all the farms—were operated by tenants. Even allowing for a very small change among the owners and managers, it is probable that not less than 1,000,000 farmers change their residence each year. We have, therefore, probably 2,500,000 more or less transient persons engaged in agriculture; this can easily be expanded to 3,000,000 persons when we include the grown sons of the farmers who have changed their residence. It is none the less true, however, that there were nearly 6,000,000 country homes to be occupied.

If we turn now to the Census of 1910 we find that the number of farms has increased to nearly 6,400,000, and we may assume that the number of farm homes has increased accordingly. We may also assume, although the reports are not yet available, that the number of persons gainfully employed in agriculture has increased at much the same ratio. Unless there has been a decrease in the birth rate, the number of members of the farmers' families, who have remained on the farm, probably has kept pace with the increase in the number of farms. During the last decade there has been a considerable increase in the number of farms operated by tenants—the number now being more than 2,350,000. At the present time thirty-seven per cent are operated by tenants. This doubtless means that the



percentage of farmers who may be classed among transients has increased materially during the decade.

The Census of 1900 did not tell how many resident farmers employed hired labor; the estimate made (1,500,000) was doubtless far too low, since it was based upon the theory that most of those employed were employed for the greater part of the year. The Census of 1910 gives information which was not available ten years earlier. According to the present Census almost 3,000,000 resident farmers employed transient laborers during the year 1909—in other words, forty-six out of each one hundred farmers employed transient laborers. It would appear from this that, unless the same transient laborers were employed by different farmers at different seasons of the year, there are available approximately 3,000,000 transient farm laborers. If there are this many transient farm laborers, we can readily see that the number of persons gainfully employed who are more or less transient, including tenants and owners who move during an average year, must be not far from 5,000,000.

Passing now from the volume of farm laborers to a consideration of other problems, it must be clear that with so many farm laborers moving constantly from place to place there is the best possible opportunity for competition. Not only is there opportunity for competition among these persons for places on farms, but there is a very good opportunity for these same persons to secure employment in cities, lumber camps, and other places. There is also the best possible opportunity for these men to familiarize themselves with conditions in different parts of the country, and make that section where they secure the best treatment their home. In this way treatment may be equalized more or less in different parts of the country.

Probably the best possible opportunity which comes to these men is the opportunity to study methods of conducting agricultural operations in different parts of the country. As a result of this study and as a result of their serving more or less in the capacity of apprentices, at the same time receiving good wages, this class, numbering 5,000,000 or nearly that many, is in a position to become owners of farms. It is a fact that agricultural laborers can change to the status of tenants in some parts of the country with little or no effort, merely by expressing their desire to change. In some sections



of the country, notably parts of the South, the status of the hired laborer does not greatly differ from that of some classes of tenants. The average income probably does not vary greatly, and in some sections the hired laborer who has a family is furnished with as satisfactory a home as is the farm tenant who comes without equipment and must be constantly directed in his work. Not only are these hired laborers, who represent the more transient element of our agricultural population, eligible to the position of tenants and managers, they may even yet with considerable ease become owners of small tracts of land in various parts of the country, or they may take up claims of different kinds or in many other ways establish themselves as farm owners. There is doubtless still a very good opportunity for farm laborers who work for a wage to become tenants, owners, or managers of farms.

It would be impossible in such a brief treatment of the subject as I have attempted here to compare the relative status of farm laborers in different parts of the United States, or to compare the relative income. Suffice it to say that in practically all sections of the country the farm laborer, who is not a member of the family and who is hired for a definite wage, is furnished with board and a place to live. The Census of 1910 shows that twenty per cent of the total amount reported as expended for hired labor during the year 1909 was in the form of rent and board, only eighty per cent being in the form of cash. In some sections of the country small separate buildings are furnished to the hired laborers who have families. In some sections separate buildings are furnished for all hired employees. This, however, is only possible on the large farms or plantations, where separate quarters are sometimes maintained and is a very small part of the total.

The reports show that not only do forty-six out of every one hundred resident farmers employ labor, but also that the average expenditure per farm, including the value of rent and board furnished, is less than \$225. From this we are safe in concluding, even if we do not know the facts, that the customary thing on approximately half of the farms in the United States is for the resident farmer to employ from one to four or five persons for a comparatively short period of time during the busy season of the year. It is impracticable to furnish a separate house or building for these hired laborers, and, therefore, the common thing is for



the hired laborers to be assigned rooms in the family residence or sleeping quarters in some of the stables or hay barns. At the same time it is very customary for the hired laborers to sit at the table for meals with members of the family unless the number is large enough to warrant setting the table twice. Where only one or two laborers are employed, it is almost a universal practice for these one or two laborers to live in the homes with the resident farmers.



## SCIENTIFIC FARMING

BY EUGENE DAVENPORT, PH.D.,

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The agriculture of the United States has passed through two definite stages of development and is now entering upon the third. It is profitable for the present purpose to review briefly this evolution.

As primitive agriculture exists it is known to the economist as the self-sufficing system; namely, each family undertakes to provide, year by year, sufficient food to last itself and its animals until the succeeding harvest. This system was inevitable in a new country, where practically everybody lived upon the land and was to all intents and purposes a farmer, and it is the system which prevailed until well into the lifetime of men still living.

With the increase of population and the development of manufacturing industries and transportation facilities, a large portion of the population began to devote itself to interests other than farming. This condition was necessary to the establishment of a market for agricultural produce and for the development of the second stage of agricultural evolution; namely, the money-making era. With the publication of each successive Census report we hear much about the decreasing percentage of those engaged in farming, as if it were a national calamity; whereas the truth is that if 100 per cent of our population had always remained in the country, there would be no market for the produce of the land, a money income from farming would be impossible, and agriculture would forever remain a family industry without returns beyond the bare necessities of living. In brief, it could never have risen from the self-sufficing stage to the money-making stage.

This money-making stage may be said, roughly speaking, to have begun with the Civil War, when the states from Michigan and Indiana east became wealthy in the production of wheat. This period was immediately followed by the development of the boundless prairies of the West, throwing upon the markets of the world



almost unlimited amounts of the cheapest beef and breadstuff that mankind has ever known. To be sure, it was all the time at the expense of virgin fertility, and the country has reaped the consequences, but the financial results were so enormous that the wealth of the states of the Mississippi Valley and the West may be said to have been drawn directly from the land; indeed, most of the bankers and merchants of the prairie states were first farmers.

The methods of procedure in this second stage of development were not very different from those of the first; namely, plowing, sowing and harvesting, which constituted the whole business of the farming so far as the land was concerned, and stock raising was little more than herding on the open range. The farmer of that generation was exploiting nature at a rate never before attempted. The havoc was terrific, but the wealth of the world was laid at the feet of men who acquired ownership of government lands either by homesteading or by the payment of a nominal fee of about a dollar and a quarter an acre. Men are yet living who acquired land in this way which is now worth two hundred and fifty and three hundred dollars per acre, enjoying not only this tremendous increase in land value, but large fortunes of personal property acquired from the soil during the interim.

In the meantime science was developing and laying the foundation for the third or scientific stage of farming, which we are just now entering with promise. As agriculture assumes this third and scientific stage in its evolution, the object is not so much the magnitude of production as it is the quality of the product and the economy of its production. The world could not long have lived under the oldtime destructive methods of agriculture, no matter how profitable they might have been temporarily to those engaged therein. The waste of fertility was too great. Lands that had been thousands of years in the making were ruined within a generation. Had those methods been continued, however temporarily profitable they may have been, the decline of the country would have been inevitable from sheer inability to wring sufficient sustenance from the soil.

Chemistry was the first of the sciences to turn its attention to agriculture, and the first two subjects studied were the scientific feeding of animals and the food requirements of crops. By the new methods of investigation devised by the scientist, it was speedily



discovered that the old feeding practices, while securing results, were yet enormously wasteful in that the rations were sadly unbalanced so far as the requirements of the animals were concerned, resulting in corresponding losses in food value. The result was the devising of a "balanced ration," which very nearly corresponds in its component parts to the real needs of an animal for nourishment and thus avoids the wastage of the surplus, particularly of the more expensive nitrogenous foods.

Turning his attention to the soil, the chemist found correspondingly wasteful practices. To be sure the farmer had learned through experience generations ago that manures and other fertilizers would increase the growth of crops, though he was about as particular to apply soot and other carbonaceous material as he was to apply the really effective fertilizers. The chemist quickly discovered that of all the elements necessary to the growth of plants only three need ordinarily to concern the farmer. Of these, nitrogen is enormously expensive, costing in the markets of the world some fifteen cents a pound, and as at least four pounds are required for a bushel of wheat it was evident that the wheat supply of the world must have been produced at wholesale expense of natural nitrogen. The scientist did not rest until he discovered, through the agency of bacteriology, that the valuable nitrogen could be captured from the atmosphere, whence it originally came. This fact was probably the most notable contribution which science has ever made to the progress of agriculture and, so far as we can see, the most notable it will ever be able to make. The dependence of man upon atmospheric nitrogen brought into form for plant use is beyond the power of comprehension.

Following "The Origin of Species," published by Darwin in 1859, and almost a generation of discussion, particularly among the theologians, the facts of evolution became well established and recently they have resulted in laying the foundation for rational methods of animal and plant breeding by which the systematic improvement of plants and animals and their adaptation to the needs of man are assured at a far less expenditure of time than heretofore and without the production of so large a proportion of worthless individuals.

An early field for scientific investigation was that of diseases, first of animals and afterward of plants. Indeed it was while work-



ing in this territory that some of the most important discoveries have been made, particularly concerning parasitic infection. The result of all this investigation has been the saving of enormous numbers of animals and of large acreage of plants by precautionary methods, such as quarantine, disinfection, etc., though the direct treatment of individual animals is generally inadvisable for economic reasons.

It is almost needless to remark that with these developments in the domain of agriculture much that was formerly tradition and superstition has begun to pass away. How recent it has all been, however, is shown by the fact that men still live who plant their seeds and kill their meat with reference to the phases of the moon, who treat "hollow-horn" and "wolf in the tail" by incantation, who put a red-hot horseshoe into the churn to drive the witches away, and who castrate only when the sign is right. While instances of this kind can still be found, it is yet true that the great masses of farmers to-day, even in the remoter agricultural districts, have caught the scientific spirit; and most of the material that now goes to constitute the revised agriculture of the twentieth century rests upon well established facts. So true is this that no man in these days can get a hearing anywhere upon any matter which does not rest, or at least seem to rest, upon experimental knowledge.

We have not yet reached the end of this development. We may be said to be just now in the very beginning of sanitary science regarding the operations of the farm. A man must do more now than to produce his milk or butter; he must produce it in a way which will assure the consumer that he is not taking communicable diseases in the milk, which is a kind of universal culture medium for everything which comes its way. It is this fact which has so notably raised the cost of city milk and is so appreciably reducing the mortality of infants.

Economics is perhaps the last of the sciences to reform the practices of agriculture. In the Far West it has taken the form of co-operative marketing, rendered necessary by the long expanse of mountain and desert over which fruit must be transported to reach the Eastern markets. In this way the last vestige of extreme individualism on the farm is being obliterated. What the passing of this individualism may mean so far as independence and the development of personal initiative are concerned, only time will tell; but one thing is clear—that as the facts in agriculture are developed by



scientific research, the truth stands out that the business of food production, to some extent at least, must be organized and conducted around larger units than that of a single farmer and his family.

The "organization of the farm" is a scientific conception of the most recent development. So long as wild lands could be had for mere occupancy, a farmer could get nothing out of his business but the bare return for labor; his land could have no value and there could be no investment except a slight one in implements and animals. Now, however, when the public domain is practically exhausted, competition for land will raise its price, food values must go up, for the farmer must realize income on capital as well as on labor, and his business is gradually assuming the form of other capitalized industries. This puts a new economic phase on agriculture and the whole question of how to organize and conduct a farm is a new one in economic science, as it is in agricultural practice. We still await its solution. Indeed, its serious study has only just begun.

The universal extension of agricultural education may be said to be the direct result of the development of scientific agriculture. There is little in mere handicraft that can be taught; it must mostly be acquired by experience. It is only when a subject has reached the scientific stage that it becomes teachable through the elucidation of the principles involved. Because of the ease and speed with which certain of these principles can be learned, and because of their immediate and far-reaching effect, particularly upon the permanence of agriculture, the demand is universal that the subject should be taught in as many of the schools as possible. The economist readily sees that the oldtime wasteful methods cannot prevail; that if we are to have a permanent civilization we must have a permanent food supply; and this must depend not upon practices that gradually impoverish the land, but rather on those scientific procedures which leave it each generation a little better than before in order that it may meet the demands of an increasing population with a more highly developed civilization.

This then is the aim and purpose of scientific agriculture: to replace tradition with well established facts; to substitute for the irregular and uncertain purposes of the individual a systematic and well organized business of food production by the community at large; to further adapt our domesticated animals and plants to the



purposes of man ; and to stop forever that reckless depletion of the power of the soil to produce, which will not only fix a low limit to the population of our country, but so weaken the constitution of the people as to lay the foundation for disease. It aims, too, to establish in these early and prosperous days, through education, such standards of living as shall prevent the coming of those hard conditions which have descended upon such races as have surrendered themselves to the mere business of getting a living on worn-out soil.



## GOOD ROADS MOVEMENT

BY HAROLD PARKER,

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There appears to be no doubt that the automobile, as its use has developed in this and other countries, has given an impetus to the improvement of the condition of highways and roads during the last few years that nothing in the history of highways has equaled or even approached. It is in a large measure due to this that the subject of good roads is absorbing so large a portion of the public attention, and which gives so strong an indication of the general interest in the Good Roads Movement. It should, however, be realized that the attention given to this subject is, in itself, not to be regarded as a safe guide to the action of public bodies for the reason, as in all questions of this sort, the determination of the people overreaches itself and takes action before wise counsel can be adopted. Therefore, many steps have to be retraced before a safe and sound solution of such a vexed question can be reached.

It does not seem necessary to point out that the development or evolution of the transportation question has been one of very slow growth and has followed generally the evolution of the people themselves. It has often been stated that the condition of the public roads in any civilized community was a measure of the material standing of that community, and undoubtedly, to a certain extent, this is true, but it is still more true that communities or assemblages of communities do give their attention to that matter which presses most earnestly upon their material progress, even if by so doing the refinements of civilization are left in the background.

In the United States, which covers a territory so large that practically all the countries of Europe might be contained within its borders, the consideration of the location, construction and maintenance of public roads as a scientific problem has been subordinated to more immediately pressing considerations. The fact that this vast area has been uninhabited by civilized beings until within comparatively recent times, and that its exploration, settle-



ment and development have been phenomenally rapid, has brought about a condition of political and social affairs that has never previously existed in any other country. In short, the process of development towards civilization in the old countries of the world has been accompanied by a parallel development in its means of transportation; whereas, in this country, which was settled by colonists, who brought with them all the inherited civilization from the country which gave them birth and thrust them at once into a continuous struggle with savage nature and savage men, the relative importance of their surroundings immediately became very different from what had existed previously, and so a distorted relation was created and their lines of evolution changed.

The transportation problem, as it first presented itself to these early settlers, was solved by the use of the ocean, river courses, and afterwards by the construction of canals which connected these waterways. By degrees roadways took the place of trails, which led gradually farther and farther into the wilderness, but their relative importance never took the same ground as it had in Europe. There the transportation of armies and munitions of war had brought the question of transportation very forcibly before the governments of those countries, while here it simply meant the easiest and most unscientific means of communication between small settlements and their market, or to the nearest point on the rivers or upon the seacoast.

As the agriculture of the country, as well as its mechanical and industrial products increased, a gradual improvement in the roads outlined above took place, but as I have indicated, never did they show the relative importance that they had in other countries. If it had not been for the invention of the steam engine, it is difficult to see how this great country would have reached its present state of progress, except after many years of slow development. The fact, however, that rail transportation became effective at this critical point in our history, has not required an answer to this question. The railroad system, as it developed in the United States, answered the needs for many years of other means of transportation, except for the short distances that existed between the farms or the factories and the railroad station.

The history of the growth of the railroads of the United States is probably the most surprising industrial development in



the history of the world, and to-day more than half of the railroad mileage of the entire world is within the limits of the United States. Not much over fifty years ago, the whole of the Middle West was an undeveloped region and if, instead of railroads, we had had to depend upon the ordinary wagon road as it then was and, in most cases still is, how much do you think of that wonderful human prosperity seen everywhere through this region would be in existence to-day? The extraordinary initiative and courage of a comparatively small number of railroad men and those who controlled capital, thrust the line of steel into the wilderness and cities and towns grew up as if by the hand of magic.

I am attempting to point out the difference in conditions of transportation and its relation to the people themselves between this country and the older civilized nations of Europe, and how, from the very nature of things, the present unsatisfactory condition of our highways is not so much a demonstration of our lack of civilization, as it is an evidence that our efforts have been turned towards the solving of problems more nearly pressing upon our well-being. It is fair, therefore, to say in extenuation of the present conditions, that although the roads of the United States may be, as a whole, the worst to be found in any civilized country, it is because our attention, our resources and our brain have been absolutely absorbed in turning a wilderness, 3000 miles in width, into the most prosperous country in the world both in wealth of product and in political freedom and advancement. It is only within a few years that the less densely populated areas have felt the need for improvement in their highways, although it is true that in the older portions of the country a more or less careful study of roads and streets and highway bridges has been made and has, in a measure, kept pace with that of other countries; it is, nevertheless, true that never in the history of the United States has there been such a thing as a consistent system, either for the location, construction or maintenance of the roads and highways, even in the older portions of the country.

It is a reasonable assumption that the people of the United States will in time as effectively and efficiently solve a problem of this importance and magnitude as they have solved other problems which seemed more overwhelming in the past, and it is plain enough that the present intensity of public interest on this subject is so



concentrated and insistent that the solution of this question must be solved, and although in the process we may spend many thousands of dollars in vain, and lose much valuable time, the final adjustment will be in accordance with reason and economic value. It was suggested at the beginning of this article, that the automobile has probably done more to give impetus to this movement than any one thing. The automobile would not, however, have been able to produce this result if the people themselves had not been ready for the question, and the automobile is merely an incident.

The Good Roads Movement, which is filling so large a portion of the horizon at this moment, undoubtedly carries with it elements of danger, similar in effect to the danger that attends any great public movement. When the minds of the great mass are moved towards one end without direction or control, it involves the expenditure of money unwisely, and many acts which have to be reconsidered, and this largely because the actions were taken without proper preparation. This danger no doubt lies in a large measure in the public sentiment expressing itself in the desire for a result, without consideration of the way to produce that result, or of the unconsidered demand by the masses which affects the political situation and the minds of politicians. The governing bodies, whether state or national, being composed of many individuals, and the sole responsibility not resting on any one, do not seem to give sufficient weight to their responsibility, both as to appropriating money and to its wise expenditure. The members of these bodies, pressed by the insistent cry of their political supporters, will make available public funds without having digested any plan for their wise use.

At a meeting recently held in Richmond, Virginia, at which those interested in this subject met for the purpose of discussion and also for the purpose of pushing along this cause, it was sufficiently evident that the demand for federal aid was to be considered as a national issue and many politicians, as well as those who were not politicians, most vehemently urged this policy and demanded it of their representatives in Congress. Not one of them, so far as I could learn, had even considered a feasible and reasonable way of spending the fifty million dollars which they insisted upon as a Congressional appropriation.



If this proposition had been seriously considered, would they not realize that fifty millions of dollars is a mere drop in the bucket toward the construction of any system of national highways? And that, without intelligent supervision of trained and educated road engineers, the expenditure of this sum, or any other sum that Congress might appropriate, would be made without beneficial results, even to those who were most nearly affected?

Many plans have been suggested by members of Congress in the shape of bills presented in their respective houses, which appear to me to have been formulated mainly to satisfy the clamor of the voters who were their supporters, but which upon intelligent consideration appear to have little foundation in reason or merit. There have been, however, certain well-considered plans which embody a scheme for national highways, and which define the location and scope of a national highway system under a particular branch of the United States Government, and which suggest plans of location with greater or less detail, and which, if wisely carried out, would not only create a scheme for a national system of highways, but would also provide a school for the proper education and training of road engineers. This would be of vast material benefit to the country. It would also have the effect, properly executed, of affording a standard method of construction and maintenance over the entire country, that would approach the present admirable system so long used in France.

It does not seem to me to be susceptible of argument that a question involving so vast an interest and so tremendous an expenditure of money as this, or any other plan, would involve, should be acted upon by Congress without the most careful thought both as to the ultimate cost and the economic way of bringing it about.

The bills so far presented in Congress, and there are many of them, provide for the expenditure of sums ranging from a few millions to a hundred million dollars, or even more, to be divided among the various states as national aid to those states by the National Government. The amount and location would probably be determined largely by the political skill of the individual members of Congress; this would undoubtedly produce a condition of chaos that would be a source rather of shame than credit to the people of the country. How much wiser would it be for Congress to refer the



consideration of the whole question to the President of the United States with the authority to appoint a commission which should give the entire matter the most careful and exhaustive study and examination, and render a report of its findings with recommendations for legislation.

The insistence of the public for a more reasonable system of public roads has produced, in many states, laws which have created highway commissions with greater or less power and responsibility. These commissions are composed of men selected by the various state governments, and are of varying value, according to the wisdom and sincerity of the appointed powers. All these officials are, however, badly handicapped because there are so few trained road engineers in the United States, except as they have been developed by the commission themselves. The result of course is that, in some states, satisfactory results have been brought about and some approach made to a practical system by regular and studied method, but in most states, the expenditure of the public funds is without lasting benefit to the public.

It is impossible, under any existing condition in the United States, to make sure of any consistent improvement. We have no technical school for training such engineers, except as courses have been introduced in small ways in certain universities. Columbia alone, within the year, has introduced a graduate school of highway engineering. We have no present standard of method or administration throughout the length and breadth of this great country, and no well-digested methods except at isolated points.

Up to the present time in the United States, as I intimated in the first part of this paper, the efforts of our greatest minds have been directed wholly to the material growth of the country at large, and have not centered themselves upon the problem of highway science. The tremendous present demand will undoubtedly enforce the attention of greater intelligence than has yet been used, and there is no doubt in my mind that an adjustment will take place, which shall be to the advantage of all. This cannot be done, however, by following the undefined paths suggested in the oratorical efforts of public speakers whose ambition seems to be to excite the assuring applause of an unconsidering crowd.

From the British Northwest to the Gulf of Mexico, and from Nova Scotia to Southern California, the cry for better roads is



heard on every hand. States and territories and colonies, counties and cities are issuing bonds and are borrowing money for the specific purpose of building roads, and among them all hardly a single one can furnish men properly educated and trained to spend these tremendous sums economically or properly. There are no men in America, with very few exceptions, whose technical education fits them to build roads, and those who are fitted by experience, are generally experienced only along certain lines which come within the scope of their particular work. It may not be generally appreciated, but it is, nevertheless, a fact that it would be almost impossible at this moment to select a force of road engineers in this country, fitted to take charge of the construction and maintenance of a National System of Highways of the kind and character which our Government could properly undertake. The demand, therefore, for a proper and systematic training of such officials along lines similar in character and scope to those practiced in the French School of Roads and Bridges, is imperative, and is more urgent from my point of view than the appropriation of money until we have learned how to spend it.

I think that the public mind should, so far as is possible, be directed along two lines of thought before it is allowed to so far act upon political sensibilities of Congress as to produce actual results. These two lines of thought are: First, to determine how to spend the money that it is proposed to appropriate, and, second and incidental to the first, how to produce men trained to take charge of such expenditure, and this is intended to apply to local and state considerations as well as national.

These two points seems to me to embody the entire issue as it is raised by the Good Roads Movement.



## CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENTS AMONG FARMERS

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Co-operation, as applying to agriculture in the United States, is a term of various meaning. In its stricter sense, it generally implies a business association in which one and only one vote is given to each member, capital is supplied by the members and is paid only the current rate of interest, and profits are distributed to the members according to the amount each "sells or buys or supplies." The unit of organization is the man; the association is an organization of men, and not primarily of a certain number of capital units. In this sense the term is understood commonly in Europe, but much less commonly in the United States. Here co-operation frequently implies a joint stock company in which capital often participates in the profits and the voting is by shares, although some limitation is usually placed on the number of shares that any member may own. Again, co-operation may imply simply a more or less temporary organization for the purchasing of goods at wholesale prices, testing cows for tuberculosis or butter fat, or the accomplishing of almost any other common purpose.

The doing of business together co-operatively has frequently been hailed by students of our competitive system as a remedy for many of our social ills. J. S. Mill believed it might prove a great boon, particularly to the hand-working classes. Professor Cairnes agreed with Professor Fawcett that "we may look with more confidence to co-operation than to any other agency to improve industrial conditions." In our own country a good many distinguished scholars like Professor Ely and Dr. Albert Shaw have written enthusiastically of this humble and often despised agency. But notwithstanding this eminent laying-on of hands, co-operation in the United States is often thought of as the work of impracticable dreamers. Their efforts as related to agriculture are regarded chiefly as a series of colossal failures beginning with the transcendental Brook Farm and ending, for the most part, in the late '70's



with the collapse of gigantic Grange schemes that embraced even international trade. The truth is that agricultural co-operation, or business co-operation of any kind, if judged solely by its history in this country up to within the last two or three decades, has generally not acquitted itself worthy of its sponsors.

In 1888, at the time the Johns Hopkins University Studies gave us the History of Co-operation in the United States, there remained probably only a few thousand co-operative societies out of the many thousands that had been earlier formed. In contrast with this showing is the situation to-day. An investigation made by the United States Department of Agriculture in 1907 discovered in this country at that time about 85,000 agricultural co-operative societies with a membership of about 3,000,000, not including duplicates. In these societies are represented one-half of the farmers of this country. "The fraction is much larger," says Secretary Wilson, "if it is based on the total number of medium and better sorts of farmers to which the co-operators mostly belong." The number of societies engaged in each of the principal kinds of co-operation is given as follows: Irrigation, 30,000; insurance, 15,650; telephone service, 15,000; buying 4,000; creameries and cheese factories, 2,400; grain elevators, 1,800; selling 1,000. The causes that have led to this great increase in numbers in recent years are numerous and are of sufficient consequence to be taken up in some detail. Among the most important are probably experience of earlier movements, organization in other industries and the great success of co-operation in Europe.

Some lessons were learned from past success but probably more from past failures. Scattered here and there were successful societies organized on business principles, animated by a truly co-operative spirit and understanding the competitive forces with which they had to contend. Many others, however, looking upon the middleman as their arch enemy and determined to strike him a quick and fatal blow, chose one of their own number to perform his functions, but in so doing frequently aroused so many local jealousies and made so many business blunders as to insure their own defeat. Co-operative experience had, nevertheless, a sobering and clarifying influence upon both the co-operator and the middleman. Through the rapidly improving and more generally utilized agencies of communication and transportation, farmers came to have



a better understanding of the principles of the more successful societies. Other societies while nominally unsuccessful had yet caused the middleman in his struggle for self-preservation to lower his prices very greatly. He had, for example, been obliged to reduce the price of reapers from \$275 to \$175; of threshers from \$300 to \$200; of wagons from \$150 to \$90; sewing machines from \$75 to \$40. Potential competition from the co-operators was able to keep permanently low prices that were intended to be so only temporarily. The co-operators, too, came to see in their conduct of a creamery, general store or other business that middlemen were not always the exploiters they were imagined to be.

Another influence making for the development of co-operative societies has been the organization of labor and of capital. Laborers by pooling their interests were seen to be able to control somewhat their labor supply with reference to a given market and to force up their wages by collective bargaining. Capital was notoriously being assembled into great trusts with power to influence greatly the prices of products that the farmer had to sell or of the goods that he had to buy. We need only call to mind what has been public opinion regarding the power of the so-called meat trust, harvester trust and lumber trust, and the power of some of these over transportation companies, in order to realize their influence in crystallizing business thought among the more intelligent farmers. The more recent organization of middlemen in many large distributing centers has also hastened the getting together of the farmers.

Still another influence on co-operation in the United States has been the recent marked success of this form of business organization among farmers in most European countries. This has been especially notable in Germany, Denmark, Italy and France during the last three or four decades, and in Ireland still more recently. Immigrants from these foreign countries, either because of their co-operative experience or because of their acquaintance with co-operative movements abroad, take kindly as a rule, to this form of business. Such is strikingly the case in the Middle West where the co-operative creameries and elevator companies abound. The only successful co-operative stores organized in New England since 1880 have been, with one or two exceptions, among foreigners.

In this connection it may be noted, too, that in those parts of the country into which there has recently been a considerable influx



of interstate immigrants, as in the Pacific coast states, in Texas and in certain other parts of the South and the Southwest, the co-operative movement has rapidly developed. While this is due probably in part to the intensive and specialized agriculture practiced and to the nature of the crops grown, *e. g.*, fruits and vegetables, it is due also in part to the transplanting of individuals into new social groups in which the "cake of custom" is likely to be broken up and new adjustments made under some intellectual leadership. "Necessity" is often rightly said to be the mother of co-operative invention, yet, while success has come to the fruit grower of newly-settled Oregon or Washington, neglected orchards often attest the failure of fruit growers in New England, even though soil, climate, and markets may be in their favor.

Leadership in co-operation in the United States has not been taken by any one person as it has been by Raiffeisen in Germany, Dr. Wollemborg in Italy, or Sir Horace Plunkett in Ireland—men who were not primarily farmers but far-seeing philanthropists or statesmen. This explains perhaps why we have not in America a co-operative movement instead of many independent movements.

One of the earlier forms of co-operation which has survived and which has in the last quarter of a century greatly increased its operations is that of insurance. There are two general forms of co-operative insurance societies. One is patterned after the old line companies in which a surplus is accumulated by the payment of fixed premiums at the time of insurance to cover future losses. The second type has no fixed premium and carries no reserves. When losses occur assessments are made to cover them. The only fixed charge is to cover running expenses and is paid at the time the risk is taken. The Grange has organized for its members a good many successful mutuals of this latter type. In Pennsylvania, for example, there are a dozen such societies carrying risks of about \$30,000,000. The secretary of the State Grange writes that "some of these societies have been doing business for more than thirty years and the average cost has been but little more than one-third of what cash companies charge for the same service." The only paid officer is the secretary who gets a small salary.

Outside the Grange there were in Pennsylvania in 1906 about 260 mutual societies carrying risks of nearly a billion dollars, and paying losses for that year of more than two millions. Iowa,



Illinois and Wisconsin have each nearly as many mutuals, while Minnesota, Ohio and New York are also well represented. As a rule insurance in these companies is to be had at considerably lower rates than in the old line companies. Professor V. N. Valgren estimates that the mutuals save the Minnesota farmers annually \$750,000.

Co-operative telephone companies are striking examples of the good that has come to farmers through collective effort. The difficulties to be overcome in the starting of these companies often developed considerable initiative and community spirit. A few neighbors, sometimes by drafting into service their barb-wire fences, would organize a small independent circuit, with possibly the village storekeeper in charge of the switchboard. As the circuits would enlarge and connections with the large outside companies would be attempted, great obstacles would sometimes be encountered in the form of a demand to pay high rates or occasionally to give up their independence. Such a case the writer, as chairman of a committee in charge of a small municipal telephone plant, well remembers because of his many conferences with some Norwegian farmers who desired to connect with the city plant by way of a small switching station of a large company, but were for many months prevented by it from doing so. The obstacles in their way were the very agencies necessary to awaken in them a strong neighborhood consciousness and to give them effective fighting spirit. Many of the mutual companies have the opposition of large consolidated companies to thank first for their local organization, and later for their connection with a network of independent companies extending over a large part of the country.

In the local companies usually each member owns his own telephone and contributes equally in work, material or money in the building of the plant. In not a few cases the members become familiar with the mechanism of their "phones" and are able to dispense largely with the services of professional workmen. The rates charged are usually very low, often only a half of what is charged by private companies.

As a social agency their influence has been incalculably great. Questions of weather reports, market quotations, labor assistance, medical aid and social gatherings have been much simplified. The former isolation and consequent loneliness of the farm home is



no longer possible with neighborhoods united now by these nerves that pulsate with life. The telephone circuits of many of these mutuals are to be classed along with the school district or the township as a means of social grouping.

Another interesting type of co-operation is the co-operative store organized and supervised by the Right Relationship League. This League incorporated in 1906 has organized chiefly in Minnesota and Wisconsin about one hundred successful stores on the Rochdale plan that has been so successful in England. The Pepin County Co-operative Company in Wisconsin, with nine retail stores, did a business amounting to about \$230,000 in 1909. Distinctive features of these companies are that in starting into business they try to buy out rather than force out existing stores, make use generally of expert accountants of the League, and support a wide-awake journal devoted to their interests. The combining of educational features with democratic government and business methods ought to lead to the avoidance of some pitfalls that have been the ruin of many a co-operative store.

The crowning success of co-operation in the United States is found in connection with the raising and marketing of fruit. This success is favored by the specialization of fruit growing in certain localities, by the intensive methods used and by the frequent dependence of the industry on irrigation—itself largely a co-operative enterprise. Especially in the Rocky Mountains and Pacific coast regions do we find highly developed and enthusiastically supported co-operative societies engaged in the gathering, packing, shipping and marketing of such fruits as oranges, lemons, apples, peaches, pears and small fruits. Such societies are, however, widely distributed, being found in nearly every large fruit-growing region of the country.

The objects are such as can seldom be attained by small growers acting alone. The principal aims are to take advantage of lower rates for large shipments, to get better accommodations in way of fast freight, refrigeration and the like, to obtain information by telegraph of the needs of the various markets so as to prevent gluts, to secure better storage facilities, and to standardize the fruit to be sold by establishing brands and uniform methods of harvesting and packing.

The fruit-growers' union is generally organized on the demo-



cratic principle of one man one vote and equal contribution of capital, or on the principle of voting power and capital contribution according to the acreage of the crop. The members choose a board of directors who in turn select the most important officer, the business manager. On his tact in securing the confidence and co-operation of the growers and on his ability to market their product successfully depend very largely the welfare of the association. Such a man in some of the larger societies commands a salary of \$5,000 or more.

The business is done on a cost basis and the benefits are shared by the members in proportion to their patronage or the use they make of the association. Membership usually involves a contract that gives the association the right, under penalty for violation, to sell the whole of the marketable crop of each grower as well as to control its methods of preparation for the market. The handling of the fruit of outsiders is generally found to be dangerous because of the liability of introducing lower standards.

There are two distinct methods of packing the fruit. In one case it is done on the premises of the grower, and his fruit is inspected at the shipping station. In the other case it is done in central packing houses owned by the association. The picking of the fruit, especially of small and perishable fruit, is generally done by the grower. A better practice for the picking of such fruits as apples and oranges is to have trained gangs of men do this work for all of the members of the association. By this method the grower's ability to detect blemishes in his own fruit is not put to the test, and, what is more important, there results less bruising of the fruit, which is the chief cause of decay.

Formerly the fruit was sent to middlemen and sold on commission, but now much of it is sold f. o. b. shipping point or is consigned to the companies' own agents. A form of marketing growing in favor is the selling of fruit at auction in large distributing centers. Prior to the auction, the various consignments are catalogued and samples of the fruit are conveniently displayed for inspection. As the prospective buyers, who are principally retailers and peddlers, are furnished with catalogues and allowed to buy in small lots, a lively competition ensues. Where this form of selling is practiced the consumer is more likely to be benefited as to price than where he is still farther removed from the producer.



Many of the benefits of co-operative sale are indirect. Any change in the consumer's fancy as to variety or color of fruit or size or form of package, is quickly learned by the manager and communicated to the members. There is likely also to be a free interchange of knowledge as to the best methods of growing any particular fruit, as well as to its adaptability to any particular soil. Among the growers there arises frequently a considerable rivalry as to who shall produce the largest proportion of the best grade of fruit. Inasmuch, too, as every grower has an assigned number that is marked on every box or crate of his fruit, and each package is usually guaranteed by his association, he is held by local opinion up to a certain standard of excellence.

The associations frequently purchase for their members supplies such as box shooks, wrapping paper, spraying material, hay and household provisions. The Grand Junction Fruit Growers' Union of Colorado, for example, in 1906 bought 224 carloads of such supplies. In this connection it may be said that associations by employing their laborers in the making of crates and boxes during the slack season are able to keep a class of skilled laborers the year round. In order to understand the experiences that an association often passes through, a short account may be given of the early stages of the California Fruit Growers' Exchange—the largest and most successful organization of its kind in this country. Before the early 90's the citrus crops in California were generally remunerative. But good prices stimulated production until the supply apparently outran the demand, although the production then was little more than one-tenth of what it is to-day, with no great fear now of overproduction. The situation proved to be a profitable harvest for fruit buyers and commission men in the large cities where much of the fruit had to be marketed. In consequence many orchardists furnished their entire crop for nothing. In 1892 many a shipper received "red letter" returns showing himself indebted for freight and commissions in excess of the proceeds from the sale of his fruit. Growers who sold their fruit outright at the local shipping points often fared but little better, since they found themselves at the mercy of buyers sufficiently organized to dictate prices.

Under the circumstances it was natural that citrus growers should look for some means of escape. Co-operation on a small



scale had been tried in a few places with more or less success. When it was proposed that all of the growers of citrus fruit unite and sell their products through a central agency there was general enthusiasm. But here we meet with certain uninviting traits of character that co-operation has struggled with to improve. Some growers who pledged their crops to the association yielded to the seductive offers of buyers who were unwilling to allow their trade to slip away from them without a struggle. In a few cases lawsuits were necessary to bring a few pledgers to a realization of their obligations. But aside from these mercenary traits, which bear a strong family resemblance in all business, there were manifested unlovely qualities that sprang from ignorance and suspicion. Ignorant persons easily imagined that the matter of ascertaining marketing conditions, of establishing commercial relations with responsible buyers and of directing the sales of a society's output was something very simple, and that consequently their managers and other expert servants were being overpaid. Suspicious persons sometimes believed that their managers were promoting the interests of a selected few by showing partiality to them in grading their fruit, in selecting their market and the like. That such natures have so far been disciplined as to lead about seventy-five per cent of all the citrus fruit growers of California to work together successfully for more than fifteen years speaks well for the moral influence of co-operation.

To-day these growers are united into eighty local groups for picking and packing their fruit, while the central organization markets an annual product worth about \$15,000,000. The exchange keeps its agents in all of the principal marketing centers of this country and Canada, with one in London—there being about seventy-five altogether. Financially the exchange has been very successful. Besides being obliged to pay only a little more than half as much per box as formerly in getting their fruit on the market, the co-operators have been receiving the best possible prices because of their highly organized system of keeping constantly acquainted with the consumer's needs and distributing the supply accordingly.

What has been said regarding fruit growers' unions might be repeated with some modifications regarding many societies formed about such farm products as onions, potatoes, tobacco, tomatoes, celery and melons.



Among the causes of failure of many companies may be mentioned individualism, conservatism, jealousy, poor business management and a lack of knowledge of what other societies are doing. This last fault is being remedied where associations like the farmers' elevator companies are disposed to come together for further organization among themselves. Another cause of failure is the stock company form of organization in which there is but little restriction on share voting or on the number of shares owned. This is exemplified by some co-operative creameries. Dr. James Ford, of Harvard University, finds that only about twenty-five, or one-fifth of all the co-operative creameries of New England, are of the purely co-operative type. In the stock companies the large shareholders are tempted constantly to increase the dividend rate on capital at the expense of the other patrons. This may explain in part the difficulty of the co-operative creamery in New England to hold its own and may also be one of the weaknesses of the Western associations in their struggle with the "centralizers." Many societies also complain that legislation is not favorable—few states having suitable laws for purely co-operative societies.

Co-operation is also in need of wise leadership and organization. The Society of Equity and the Farmers' Educational and Co-operative Union of America are attempting to organize farmers on a national scale and both have done a great deal to awaken farmers to a need of collective effort. But in so far as they endeavor to fix minimum prices for such commodities as corn and cotton and to establish monopoly conditions they enter upon a questionable mission.

The chief significance of co-operation among our farmers is possibly not that of economic gain. While the economic motive has been dominant in the organization of these societies and has been fully justified by the generally satisfactory money returns, yet possibly more important has been the co-operative influence upon the farmer as a man and a citizen.

In this respect our co-operative societies generally have not attained the success reached by most of the European societies. Few of our associations can boast of the "co-operative character" so general in Denmark. Fewer would agree with some priests and clergymen in Germany that "the co-operatives" had done more for the morals of their communities than had the churches. Still fewer



possibly would agree with the president of the Co-operative Congress in 1910 that "the great function of co-operation is to create co-operators." And yet many of our societies would assent to Sir Horace Plunkett's claim that there is much in the co-operative movement to commend it to the social reformer.

A questionnaire embodying this sociological aspect of co-operation was recently sent out by the Massachusetts Agricultural College to several hundred typical co-operative societies. As far as the answers received have been analyzed they seem to confirm the importance of this aspect of the subject. The older societies in particular lay stress upon the value of the "co-operative spirit"—the fellowship and loyalty that cause their members to stand together in adversity as well as in prosperity. Some testify that co-operation gives business training, promotes scientific interest in the quality, grade or variety of farm products, and begets a desire to make known to one another the processes or "secrets" of successful farm operations. Others speak of its aid in community efforts connected with good roads, telephones, schools, churches, legislation, law enforcement, beautifying farm buildings, allaying race prejudice, keeping girls and boys on the farm and giving stability to the business of farming.

Such results usually are not marked in new societies or in old societies not truly co-operative in form or spirit. But the older societies of the purer types are certainly proving themselves to be excellent schools for the development of new conceptions of community consciousness, occupational solidarity and of larger citizenship. That these societies are destined to influence greatly the attitude of their members toward many rural institutions can scarcely be doubted. What Professor R. H. Hess says of thousands of co-operative irrigation societies regarding their larger political aspects applies with little exaggeration possibly to many other societies: "The development of a high order of intellectual and administrative ability, which is the inevitable outcome of a generation of co-operation in irrigation production, will doubtless react upon government institutions, and the gift of prophecy is not necessary to foresee radical changes in the political life of the West."



## IMMIGRANT RURAL COMMUNITIES

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The problem of the immigrant is largely industrial. Its essence lies in the concentration of incoming foreigners in urban and industrial centers, in the competition for labor and in the keeping down of the wages of living and the standard of comfort of the established workman. These problems and a host of others, social, political and moral, growing out of their congestion, poverty and ignorance of things American, have, until recently, had little or no apparent significance in the rural districts where foreigners have settled.

Nevertheless, the foreigner has played a very prominent part in the agricultural development not only of the great West and Southwest, but of New England. The lure of free land, unbroken, rich, suited to pioneers willing to undergo privations and hardships for the sake of landed property, attracted a steady, sturdy influx from northern and western Europe, which continued through the seventies and eighties but slackened somewhat by 1895, when the supply of free land began to be pretty well exhausted. In the upper Mississippi Valley rural groups or settlements of foreign-born are so widespread and frequent that a township of Bohemian, German or Scandinavian farmers excites no comment and invites no comparisons. They have improved the land, organized the agriculture, shaped the social institutions and influenced the political situation. Most of them are very thoroughly Americanized—at any rate they have become thoroughly imbued with the American spirit, have lost most of their distinctive race characteristics and are well recognized and permanently established elements in western rural life.

More recently, however, and perhaps more especially in the East, South, Southwest and Pacific coast, certain small compact communities of foreigners have been settling. They belong to the newer immigration, originating largely in southern and southeastern Europe, and they represent what may be denominated the



agriculturally doubtful races. Racially they are Slavs, Italians, Hebrews, Portuguese, a few Greeks, Belgians and some Orientals. It is of certain characteristics of these rural folk that this paper will deal.

The Federal Census of 1900 reported about nine and one-half million male breadwinners engaged in agricultural pursuits in the United States. Three-fifths of these were native whites, born of native parents, about one-sixth were negroes, and the remainder, some 2,100,000, were of foreign origin, *i. e.*, born of foreign parents. Taking no account of the Chinese, Japanese, Indians and other colored persons, the males of foreign lineage constituted in 1900 more than one-fourth (25.4 per cent) of all white males in agriculture—certainly an element to be reckoned with. Viewed from the standpoint of immigration, something like one-fourth of all male breadwinners of foreign parentage in the United States were engaged in agriculture in 1900. The occupational statistics of the census of 1910 have not yet been published, but they will certainly show an increasing number of recent immigrants entering rural pursuits; neither the absolute nor the relative numbers at the present time can be estimated with any degree of accuracy.

The United States Immigration Commission made a partial investigation of recent rural immigrants from southern Europe, and in the course of their study personally visited more than 150 immigrant settlements, representing many different forms of agriculture in nineteen states, chiefly along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, where many incipient communities have recently taken root. Several colonies also, largely Polish or Italian, that have recently established themselves in the Middle West, were included in the studies of the commission.

In general, the groups are racially homogeneous. Moreover, as races they bear certain common characteristics of some economic significance. In the first place, although a large percentage of them were born and bred in rural districts abroad, comparatively few of them have found their way to the countryside in the United States; most of those who chose agriculture as a vocation became farmers immediately on their arrival in the United States. Second, as compared with the races from northern Europe, these foreigners are recent arrivals and consequently have not generally been able to acquire rich, virgin land free. Many have purchased older,



more or less improved areas, or the less desirable parcels rejected by earlier home-seekers. Third, these races are still on trial as agriculturists. They have not yet fully proved their fitness for American rural life. They are doubtful. Finally, while at present the farmers among them are relatively few in number, it is likely that our agricultural immigrants of the future will be largely recruited from the ranks of these races.

#### *Seasonal Laborers and Permanent Farmers*

The early rural immigrants who came from northern Europe and made a straight trail for the woodlands and prairies of the great West years ago, were almost invariably home-seekers. Most of them entered upon virgin land as soon as they reached their destinations; others, after a very short period as farm laborers and lumbermen, invested in wagons and teams, married and began life as land owners. From the beginning they secured a firm foothold on the soil, to which they clung tenaciously. Among the more recent agricultural immigrants one may distinguish three economic classes, differentiated by their relationship to the land. First are the seasonal laborers, those having places of residence and, perhaps, a principal occupation in the city, who spend a few weeks of each year in the agricultural districts performing certain specific tasks, such as hoeing, berry-picking, vegetable gathering or the like. The second class are the regular farm laborers as we know them, who usually become land owners. The third are the land buying, farm owning immigrants, the salt of our foreign farming communities.

With the extension of market gardening, small fruit growing, cranberry bogs on a large scale, vegetable canneries and sugar-beet cultivation, the demand for seasonal labor has greatly increased. The field of employment is frequently near centers of population; summer is the season, congenial to those who would live out-of-doors, especially favorable for the employment of school children and laborers out of work, because shops have shut down and schools are closed; in general, the entire family may find employment on the same farm or enterprise and greatly reduce the cost of living by subsisting on vegetables and paying no rents. Thousands of Italians, Greeks, Poles, Portuguese and others come in contact with the land and with the open country in this way.



The seasonal laborer has little opportunity to become an owner. He is the counterpart of the unskilled temporary laborer in industry, the day laborer on railway construction work. Specialized, capitalistic, large scale agricultural production demands efficient machines and often great gangs of comparatively cheap laborers. The cranberry industry, highly profitable when rightly managed, is absolutely dependent on an army of pickers, usually Italians, Portuguese, Poles or Indians, who can be employed for a short time during the harvesting season. Many of these laborers are aliens, laborers of the poorest sort with little ambition and few American ideals. They are frequently birds of passage, caring naught for agriculture nor rural life nor American citizenship. They serve only to make agriculture profitable to the enterpriser. Between them and land proprietorship there is a great gulf fixed, across which very few are able to pass. Careful inquiry discloses that very few seasonal farm laborers find encouragement to become owners of farms. This class of rural immigrants is the least satisfactory from any point of view, economic, social, political or moral.

The immigrant farm hand, the regular farm laborer employed by the year or the month, gets somewhat more closely in touch with the soil and with American ideals. Thousands of newcomers, fresh from their native shores, have engaged in and are finding employment on immigrant and American farms, learning the rudiments of American farming, acquiring American methods, getting a grip on the English language and saving American dollars to purchase American land. The farm laborers of New York and New England seem to be chiefly Poles, Italians, Portuguese, Canadian French, and a few other foreign-born. They are seldom wholly satisfactory farm laborers, but there is no other really available source of supply. A surprisingly large percentage of them come to love the soil and in a few years acquire some land, purchased out of their earnings. This is markedly the case where the farm laborers are newcomers of the same race as their employers.

#### *Permanent Rural Groups*

Of the somewhat more than one hundred and fifty rural communities visited by agents of the Immigration Commission, more than forty were Italian settlements. The largest, oldest and most important of these in the East are established on the sandy pine



barrens of southern New Jersey. Here perhaps seven thousand persons of foreign lineage have found permanent homes. The forbidding nature of the infertile waste of sand, swamp and woodland which characterizes the New Jersey barrens has prevented their occupation and improvement by Americans. Here and there a few poor native farmers have cleared small areas and carry on an inferior sort of agriculture, eking out their incomes by the sale of wood or low-grade timber. Three decades or more ago it was discovered that small fruits and berries could be produced profitably on newly cleared virgin land; a few Italians were induced to settle; others came to pick berries and, because land was cheap, remained to raise them; still others gathered about the first nuclei at Hamonton and Vineland, purchased small farms, cleared them and raised quantities of excellent berries and grapes. Over a limited area they have literally turned a desert into a garden. Their small holdings of five to thirty-five acres are well cultivated, planted to peaches, grapes, strawberries, raspberries, blackberries and sweet potatoes, and present a lively illustration of small farming with a specialized money crop on the Atlantic seaboard.

About two decades ago berry-growing was very profitable in southern New Jersey, provided one was able to procure a supply of cheap labor. The Italian was able to compete for berry land because of his large family, willing and able to aid him from clearing to harvest, because of his low standard of comfort and his capacity for incessant manual toil. Moreover, several shops and factories gave opportunity for immediate earnings, a fact of considerable importance where land is uncleared and not immediately productive. When the land was new and profits easy a good many Americans raised berries in competition with the Italians. More recently, however, successful berry-growing has depended largely on careful tillage, hand culture and fertilization, and many of the Americans have sold out to Italians, alleging their inability to compete with them successfully.

In these communities both North Italians and Sicilians are represented, and both have made efficient farmers and responsible citizens. The community is still in the making. Here are the recent arrivals, foreign in dress, speech and conduct. They have settled on small parcels of land and are deeply in debt. The men work in the brickyards, the glass works or as common day laborers, while



wife and children care for the berry patch. Living in the better houses on the larger holdings are the older immigrants; they have passed through the long hard days of debt and pioneering, have improved their holdings and purchased more land, have built good houses and are recognized as respected members of the community, perhaps American citizens.

There is still another class, the American-born Italian. Raised on American soil, familiar with berry farming from childhood, many of them alert, active, intelligent, progressive, they are the choice fruits of American immigrant rural life. Up to the present these young men and women manifest an inclination to remain farmers. They take an active interest in community life and the business of agriculture. They are fairly prosperous, their educational, social and economic standards are higher than their parents', they are good citizens and trustworthy, and many of them are proud of their profession.

The basis of a wholesome, happy rural life is economic prosperity. Where the returns from agriculture are inadequate, it is fruitless to look for adequate social, recreative or educational institutions and enterprises except in rare instances. This truth is especially demonstrable in Slavic or Italian communities. That the New Jersey groups have established a fairly satisfactory system of public schools to which they send their children with some regularity is rather good evidence that they have been prosperous and successful farmers.

The Vineland "colony," with its miles of country roads or "streets," bearing Italian names and thickly lined with the homes of small farmers, its Italian holidays and celebrations, its churches thronged with foreign worshippers and its schools filled exclusively with pupils of Italian origin is one of the best examples of a large, isolated, racially homogeneous immigrant rural group. The rural isolation has tended to perpetuate old country traditions, customs and language; Americanization has proceeded slowly, and there has been very little fusion or amalgamation either with natives or other race elements. The adult immigrants learn English much more slowly than in cities or in rural places where there is less segregation by race and religion. The parish priests use Italian almost exclusively; Italian is spoken in the home, the fields, at the social gatherings and to some extent in the school yard. Considering



these facts, the progress made by the North Italians, especially, in American citizenship and ideals is remarkable.

While the settlement of foreigners in large, compact groups has some advantages, chiefly to facilitate the founding of a colony, it is questionable whether the incorporation of these large, unas-similable alien lumps into the rural body politic is expedient in the long run. It is essential that the progressive inhabitant come into touch with the currents of American thought, American methods and American life as rapidly as possible. In one or two sections where the immigrants have purchased homes in districts settled by native farmers and have found themselves, so to speak, sandwiched in between American landowners, progress in amalgamation has been much more rapid, although the initial difficulties were greater for the foreigner.

The Italian rural settlers both in New York, New England and the Southern States are very largely small farmers engaged in truck growing, market gardening, berry culture or cotton raising. In general, they are owners of small holdings, though the form of land tenure is really a matter of the custom of the locality. For example, immigrant cotton growers are chiefly tenants who offer the highest competitive rents for the land they wish. In contrast, their Sicilian blood relatives who moved from the cotton districts to the hills of Arkansas, are all owners of the land they operate. The same may be said of Polish farmers, who are perhaps among the most eager of the home builders. The great majority own their farms, but in Texas among the cotton growers, in the old settlements of Illinois and Wisconsin, where land is high and necessary equipment expensive, and among the recent Slavic onion and tobacco growers of the Connecticut Valley tenants are very frequent. Immigrants of all races are profoundly affected by their environment, by the economic exigencies of the situation.

Nor are the Italians small farmers only, although all their old country knowledge and training inclines them to "petite culture." One of the most successful small colonies of Italians is located in western Wisconsin, where dairying, cattle raising and cereal crops are the chief agricultural sub-industries. Large herds of cattle, numerous horses, modern horse-power machinery they handle as easily and effectively as their neighbors, immigrants from Germany and Scandinavia. In whatever line of farming the Italians,



either North or South, have seriously engaged, they have demonstrated their adaptability and efficiency, frequently greater efficiency than their neighbors or predecessors. Whether raising fruit on the stony uplands of Connecticut or the sandy wastes of New Jersey, growing cotton on the black land of the Brazos Bottoms or vegetables on the black muck of western New York, cultivating strawberries on the Gulf coastal plain or potatoes in the cut-over region of northern Wisconsin, irrespective of climate, soil, topography or products of agriculture, the Italian immigrant on the land has made good as a producer. And where he has been given aid and encouragement he has proved a respectable citizen.

#### *Polish Farmers*

The Poles are a better known and perhaps a more important element in rural immigration. The first current of Polish immigrants set in from Poland to northern Illinois, Wisconsin and Iowa during the 60's and 70's. The initial Polish immigrants were a superior sort. More or less independent abroad, they came to America to take up the new, free land and build homes for themselves. After 1885, when numerous Polish communities had been planted here and there over the Lake States and the western prairies, the character of the immigrants began to change. A smaller percentage are peasants or independent proprietors; more have been day laborers abroad, and in the United States have been employed in mines, quarries, steel mills and other industrial pursuits. They have been attracted to the land by advertisements in Polish newspapers or the solicitation of Polish land agents. They represent induced immigration; they settle in small groups; their choice of location is influenced or directed by outside persons. Having more ready money than their predecessors they have been able to purchase more of the tools and equipment essential to modern farming. These Polish settlers have proved promising pioneers and have developed a number of prosperous communities on the cut-over timber lands of northern Wisconsin, the less desirable prairies of the Dakotas and the unproductive land of Illinois and Indiana chiefly because these lands could be bought cheaply.

The settlement of Poles on the so-called abandoned farms of the East has not assumed significant proportions, nor is it at all probable that the more isolated hill towns of New England, for



example, will be populated by desirable alien farmers for many years to come. Until some money crop has been found, peculiarly adapted to the rough, stony soils, by means of which the newcomer can sustain himself until his depleted acres begin to produce abundantly, the ambitious Slav is not likely to take kindly to colonization on exhausted areas. The former occupants of the old eastern farms practiced a form of agriculture that for years proved uneconomic and eventually gave up the undertaking. The new arrival faces a worn-out soil, an obsolete agricultural system, the necessity for the reorganization of crops and farm practice, with no resources save his characteristic capacity for hard work, and usually a large and willing supply of labor in his family. He needs knowledge and current capital and a long period of waiting; meantime he finds it almost impossible to win a subsistence and accumulate any savings.

But on the more fertile areas, where high-priced land devoted to a specialized money crop, largely dependent on manual labor for its successful cultivation is characteristic, Polish immigrants, and Portuguese and Hebrews as well, have found agriculture a profitable occupation. In the Connecticut Valley, into which they first entered as farm hands about 1890, they are taking possession of the fertile onion and tobacco lands with increasing rapidity, both as tenants and as owners. In certain towns some of the very choicest of the old New England farm homes have passed into the ownership of Poles. Their large families and their willingness to work long hours enable them to out compete the American onion and tobacco growers. They are able to offer prices for land that the American owner cannot afford to refuse. Their natural increase is steadily overwhelming the decaying native population. There is scarcely a shadow of doubt that the foreign influx will take complete and permanent possession of many rich rural towns where agriculture is a profitable undertaking.

What has been said of the Poles in western Massachusetts may be said of the foreigners on the muck lands in west central New York, of the Portuguese in the town of Portsmouth, Rhode Island, of Hebrews and German-Swiss in the valley of western Connecticut and in certain localities in Maine, where Finns and Swedes have formed colonies. The tale is ever the same. Given a product that will return money in exchange for manual labor,



and cheap living, hard work, large families, long hours and little leisure will inevitably win in the competitive economic contest. Within a decade we may look to see a much larger number of immigrant groups occupying the pick of the soils of New York and New England.

#### *Co-operative Adaptability*

Among the Italians, and to some extent among the Poles and Portuguese, specialization of products by localities is a noteworthy economic feature of their agriculture. Practically every farmer in the community is engaged in raising the same principal product. Instead of competition this results in efficient rivalry, co-operative endeavor and highly specialized production. Strawberries, blackberries, sweet and Irish potatoes, tobacco and certain truck crops and orchard fruits were found occupying the entire attention of farmers in as many different localities.

In co-operative undertakings the foreigners have a distinct advantage over the native farmers because of their racial homogeneity. If class consciousness has not been adequately developed, there is at any rate a race consciousness which forms a groundwork for community spirit and commercial co-operative endeavor. At Independence, Louisiana, for example, where the marketing situation demanded a united interest, the Sicilian strawberry growers came together with commendable facility and effectiveness to market their berries and to purchase fertilizers and berry boxes. In several of the more northern colonies the Italians exhibit aptness in co-operating and unite very successfully to sell produce, to purchase supplies and equipment and to manufacture their surplus raw materials of agriculture. In establishing local co-operative business enterprises the immigrants are much more uniformly successful than their native white neighbors.

#### *Americanization and Assimilation*

It is remarkable that comparatively few Polish farmers in New England are recruited from the industrial centers. The Pole comes to the land directly from his home abroad. If he has not money to rent or purchase, he begins as a farm hand and in a very few years graduates as an owner of the farm. Coming from abroad the greater number have little or no knowledge of English and none of American civic ideals or community life. For this



reason some thoughtful people have greatly regretted the inflow of immigrants to rural New England.

This movement is, however, economically inevitable under present conditions, and while Slavic farmers are less satisfactory than New Englanders, they are better than no farmers at all. Moreover, the prosperous condition of their agriculture materially hastens their Americanization. New England is beginning to recognize and make provision for their educational needs, and night schools, library facilities and instruction in civics and morals are being placed at the disposal of the rural foreign-born groups.

In general, all foreign rural communities in the East, particularly Hebrew farm colonies, where not very large nor closely segregated, manifest a lively desire to speak and read English, to adopt American dress, customs and methods of farm practice, and where encouraged, to seek naturalization as quickly as possible. There is no question that assimilation and Americanization take place more rapidly among the less segregated rural immigrants than in congested industrial groups in urban localities. Land ownership confers dignity, imposes financial and social responsibility, stimulates activity in civic affairs and awakens community interest and personal pride. In short, so far as the immigrant is concerned rural life in most instances has had a most salutary effect. It has frequently taken an ignorant, abject, unskilled, dependent foreign laborer and made of him a shrewd, self-respecting, independent farmer and citizen. His returns in material welfare are not great, but he lives happily, comfortably and peaceably and in time accumulates a small property. The second generation of these south European immigrants are frequently not less progressive than the Americans.

#### *Leadership*

One influential factor in the social and civic progress of the rural group is the quality of its leadership. In the southern colonies, situated in states with inadequate rural schools and non-compulsory attendance laws; where there is little incentive to local political activity; where tenant neighbors take little interest in citizenship or community affairs, the lack of strong leadership is very noticeable. Few have qualified as voters, and the percentage of illiteracy is relatively high. Certain southern colonies, however,



have been fortunate in possessing strong and wise leaders, American or foreign, who have insisted on educational facilities and religious institutions; have urged early naturalization and encouraged participation in public affairs; and have made plain the way to Americanization and higher standards of living. To these opportunities the foreigners respond promptly and eagerly.

Between the Italian cotton tenants of the Mississippi Delta region, among whom are few citizens, numerous illiterates, few children in school, very meagre community institutions and no political interest and their kinsmen in upland Arkansas with a majority of naturalized citizens, a most lively participation in public matters, exceptionally fine educational and religious institutions, little illiteracy and a rapidly rising standard of comfort, the contrast is most striking. The social superiority of the upland Arkansas colony is due largely to efficient leadership and individual ownership of land. Other instances might be cited to demonstrate the very significant truth that progress is much more rapid and satisfactory where there is some one to lend a friendly hand from the beginning.



## THE RURAL NEGRO COMMUNITY

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The first rural Negro communities were started in slavery times. They were established by free Negroes, who emigrated from the South, in order to escape the hardships of the "Black Laws" which, particularly in the latter days of slavery, bore with unusual severity upon the class known as "free persons of color." The establishment of the American colony of Liberia, Africa, was a result of this desire on the part of free colored people to find a place where they might escape some of the indirect burdens of slavery. Liberia, however, merely represented a widespread movement among Negroes, who had escaped slavery, to establish homes and communities of their own, not only in Africa but wherever freedom was assured them.

For a number of years before emancipation little colonies of free Negroes were established in several parts of Canada, and in states of the Middle West, especially Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, the region which, by the Ordinance of 1787, was dedicated forever to freedom. There were colonies of free Negroes established at this time in several other states—New Jersey and Michigan, for example. After the Civil War was over and Negroes were granted the same rights and the same freedom as other citizens these little rural communities tended to break up and disperse, but the remnants of them still exist in many parts of the country.

The Negro rural communities which have grown up since emancipation have had other and different motives for their existence. They have generally sprung up as a result of the efforts of Negro farmers to become landowners.

For the first twenty years of freedom there was no great disposition, so far as I can learn, on the part of Negro farmers to become landowners. During this period the Negro people and particularly the Negro leaders, were absorbed either in politics or in religion, and constructive efforts of the race were chiefly absorbed in organizing their religious life and building churches.

After the masses of the Negroes lost the influence in politics,



which they had exercised directly after the war, there was a period of some years of great discouragement. Gradually, however, it began to dawn upon the more thoughtful members of the race that there was hope for them in other directions.

They found, for example, that in communities where there was very little encouragement for a Negro to vote there was nothing which prevented him from owning property. They learned, also, that where their white neighbors were opposed to a Negro postmaster they had not the slightest objection to a Negro banker. The result was that the leaders of the race began to turn their attention to business enterprises, while the masses of the people were learning to save their money and buy land.

The first Negro bank was established in the latter part of the eighties. At the present time there are something over sixty Negro banks in different parts of the United States. In the meantime the Negro farmers, particularly in recent years, have been getting hold of the land on which they work. There are, for example, at least three counties in the South in each of which Negroes own and pay taxes on something like fifty or sixty thousand acres. In Louisa County, Virginia, Negroes own 53,268 acres; in Liberty County, Georgia, they own 55,048 and in Macon County, Alabama, Negroes pay taxes on 61,689 acres of land.

Some years ago I wrote a series of magazine articles on the subject of the Negro Town. In each of these articles I attempted to describe a distinctive type of Negro rural community. One of these was a town that had grown up around a Negro college in Ohio,<sup>1</sup> two others were towns that had been settled and built up by Negro farmers and had become the centers of Negro farming communities. One of these was Mound Bayou, Mississippi; the other was Boley, Oklahoma.<sup>2</sup>

I shall not attempt to repeat here the descriptions which I gave at that time of these Negro towns and the communities surrounding them; I only refer to them as illustrating a more general movement which has been going on, for a number of years past, on a smaller scale in other parts of the country.

It is this more general movement and the smaller and more remote farming communities it has produced that I desire to describe here.

<sup>1</sup> *World's Work*, September, 1907.

<sup>2</sup> *World's Work*, July, 1907; *Outlook*, January 4, 1908.



The first rural Negro communities that were established after the war grew up almost invariably around a little country church. The church was at this time the center around which everything revolved. It was in fact the only distinctively Negro institution that existed. It was in the church or, perhaps, in the grove surrounding it, that the political meetings were held in the days when the masses of the people were still engaged in politics. After politics had ceased, to some extent, to be a live interest the church still remained the center of the intellectual, as well as of the religious life of the people.

When I first went to Alabama I spent a large part of my time going about the country speaking to the people in the churches about the kind of education we are trying to establish at Tuskegee. Not infrequently I found that, in connection with the church, there would be a debating society which met at some time during the week to discuss questions of various kinds. After country people had ceased to discuss political questions these clubs, when they found nothing of more burning interest to talk about, sometimes got into lively debates over some good old-fashioned question such as, "Which is better, the town or the country," or "Which is more useful, the mule or the horse." I found that in these churches anyone who had any new question to present was always sure of a large and interested audience.

In more recent years, in many parts of the country, the school has, to a large extent, taken the place of the church as the center of life in the rural districts. In the early years of freedom the place of every individual was fixed in the community by the fact that he supported either the Baptist or the Methodist denomination. At present, however, the management and welfare of the school occupies, in many parts of the country at least, as large a part of the interest and attention of the community as the church.

In many cases the people have united to tax themselves, in order to build schoolhouses and to lengthen the school terms. Most of the efforts made by outside agencies, like the Anna F. Jeanes Fund, to improve the rural public schools have been directed to bringing the work of the school into closer relations with the practical interests of the rural communities.

Although in the Southern States the school officials are invariably white men, the Negro communities frequently elect trustees of



their own. These colored trustees have no legal standing, but the conduct of the school is very largely in their hands and in the hands of the "patrons," that is to say those individuals in the community who contribute something to the support of the schools.

On the whole, I believe that the control which, in this indirect way, Negroes have come to exercise over their own schools has had a good influence not only on the people, but also upon the schools. It has introduced a new interest into the life of the community. There is more to do and to think about than there used to be, and I believe I can safely say that there is a greater disposition among the people, in spite of the attraction of the city, to settle down upon the land and make themselves at home in the country districts.

Perhaps I can best illustrate the results of the changes by describing the progress which has been made, during the past eight years, in the country directly around Tuskegee Institute. Macon County, Alabama, in which the institute is situated, has a population, according to the last Census of 26,049, of which 22,039 are Negroes. The county is situated in the edge of the great prairie or Black Belt of Alabama, on which the great plantations are located. The result is that there are very striking differences in the character of the population in the different parts of the county. When, after emancipation, the colored people first began to get hold of the land, they settled as the class of poor whites before them had done, upon the light soil and cheap lands in the northern half of the county. As these settlers grew more numerous they generally formed little communities made up, for the most part, of men who owned their own lands. The majority of the Negroes, who were not willing or able to acquire lands of their own, remained as tenants on the large plantations in the southern part of the county. As might be expected there is a good deal of moving about of tenants on these big plantations. In the early days a Negro tenant felt he must move about more or less, merely in order to assure himself that he was actually free. This disposition has not yet, I am sorry to say, entirely disappeared. The result is that except in those cases where tenants have become attached to the plantation on which they work and made to feel at home there, Negro communities of tenant farmers have not been very permanent. There are, however, in Macon County several model plantation communities.



There are altogether about fifty distinct Negro farming communities in the county. Each one of these has a church and a schoolhouse, little stores, or a cotton gin belonging to some of the larger Negro landowners or to the white planter on whose land the community is located. There are about sixty business enterprises of various kinds carried on by Negroes in the county. Forty-eight of these are in the town of Tuskegee and the village of Greenwood adjoining the Tuskegee Institute and the remainder are little country stores in the country districts.

As concerns the Negro landowning communities I ought, perhaps, to say that it was not until about ten years ago that Negroes began to buy land to any very large extent in this part of the country. Down to 1900 there were not, according to the Census, more than 157 Negro farmers in Macon County who owned their own farms. At the present they number 503. Negroes pay taxes on property of the assessed value of \$419,821. The figures in the county tax assessor's office show that within a period of two years from 1908 to 1910 the tax value of lands owned by Negroes increased \$94,347.

Directly and indirectly this growth in the number of Negro landowners has been, to a very large extent, brought about by the improvement of the colored public schools throughout the county. About six or seven years ago the Tuskegee Institute was given a sum of money, in order to determine by experiment, to what extent the Negro farming communities in the surrounding county could be improved, materially and otherwise, if serious effort was made to improve the rural schools. It was not intended to use this money for the purpose of giving colored people schoolhouses and providing them with teachers. It was to be used rather to encourage them to help themselves. The money thus secured was called the Rural School Improvement Fund and in order to carry out the plan proposed a man was employed as agent, who, with the consent of the county superintendent, acted as a sort of supervisor or assistant superintendent of Negro schools. His real work consisted less, however, in supervising the work of the rural teachers than in carrying on an educational campaign throughout the county in order to stimulate the colored people to raise funds among themselves to rebuild their schoolhouses and lengthen their school terms. As a result of the campaign begun in this way colored people raised



during the next five years something like \$20,000 which was used in building schoolhouses and lengthening school terms.

As soon as a certain number of these schools were established advertisements were inserted in the colored newspapers throughout the South advertising the fact that land could be purchased in small tracts near an eight months' school. Very soon the advertisements began to attract attention. Colored farmers began to move in from the adjoining counties. Many of them came to obtain the advantages of a good country school for their children. Others came not merely for this purpose but to buy land. The effect was to bring in a more enterprising class of Negro farmers and to increase the price of land.

Meanwhile a little farmers' newspaper, *The Messenger*, as it was called, had been started for the purpose of organizing the county, stirring up interest in the improvement of the schools and stimulating the efforts of the farmers to improve their methods of farming. The preachers and teachers of the county organized an association for the purpose of pushing forward the movement. Demonstration plots were established in the neighborhood of the schools and, under the direction of the United States Demonstration Agent, the teachers began teaching farming in the schools. The preachers encouraged the movement from the pulpit and *The Messenger*, the farmers' newspaper I have referred to, made an effort to report every step that was taken, in any part of the county, looking to the education and general improvement of the people.

Through this paper the farmers of the county were brought into closer touch with the work of the Institute and the influence of the school upon the community was strengthened and deepened. In fact, it would not be far from the truth to say that the Negro communities in Macon County have made more progress during the last five years than they did during the previous twenty-five.

The work which was attempted on a small scale in Macon County, Alabama, has been undertaken in a larger way in Virginia where the state has created a state supervisor or superintendent of Negro schools, whose task has been to co-operate with and to encourage and direct the Negro people of the state in their efforts to improve the conditions of the rural schools. More than this, under the leadership of Major R. R. Moten of Hampton, what is called an "organization society" has been formed for the purpose of bring-



ing about co-operation between the various Negro organizations of the state religious and secular, to improve the school system and bring the work of the schools into closer touch with the life and practical daily interests of the people.

In what I have written I have sketched the conditions and the progress of a type of rural communities in which Negroes own, to a very considerable extent, the lands they work. A large part of the lands in Macon County are held, however, in the form of big plantations and worked by tenants. As I have already said tenants on large plantations do not, as a rule, permanently settle on the land, and, as a result, community life is not as well established. There are, however, several plantations in Macon County where something like a permanent tenant community exists. In order that I may give a definite notion of the way landlord and tenants get on together on such a plantation as I have referred to, it will not, perhaps, be out of place to repeat here the substance of a letter which I wrote to the editor of the *Montgomery Advertiser*, concerning the manner in which one of our most successful white planters, Mr. J. W. McLeod, controls the little Negro community on his plantation.

The greater part of Mr. McLeod's plantation of 1,800 acres is located in Macon County, but it extends over the line a half mile into Bullock County. At Hannon's Station, which is about the center of the plantation, there is a colored settlement of about seventy-five or eighty families. This community has a good schoolhouse, with attendance of 110 pupils. The building alone cost, I understand, about \$800, and last year the people raised \$127 to put in regular factory-made seats and desks.

For several years Mr. McLeod has followed the plan of giving an annual barbecue dinner to the tenants, making that dinner the occasion for distributing prizes among those who had made the most progress during the year, and for giving them good, wholesome advice, that would help them and encourage them to do better in the future. This year Mr. McLeod celebrated the close of the farming season by distributing \$200 in prizes among his tenants. A number of teachers from the Tuskegee Agricultural School were invited to inspect the homes and the general conditions and act as committee to assist in awarding the prizes. The committee spent two days on the place, visiting and inspecting the farms and homes of forty-one tenants.



Prizes were given to those who showed the most progress in the preparation and cultivation of the crops; to those whose stock showed the most intelligent care and treatment; to those who kept the best homes. Then there were several prizes to certain individuals for special interest in the care of stock; for making good upon a steer farm, and for making a success at rough land farming. The prizes ranged all the way from \$12 to \$25. Any man or woman guilty of drunkenness or of abusing his or her family was debarred from the contest.

The program this year was a long one. There was first an evening meeting at the schoolhouse on the day of the arrival of the committee. At this meeting there were reports on the Farmers' Improvement Club of Hannon, interspersed with singing of good old-fashioned plantation melodies. Then there was a debate in which all the farmers and their wives took part. The subject was: "Resolved, That Woman Is of More Service Upon the Farm Than a Man." The women won, "not because," as one man explained it to me, "they were really of more use than the man, but because they were better in an argument." Meanwhile the animals had been slaughtered for the barbecue and, while a crowd of laughing, happy people gathered around the pit where the two whole beeves, two hogs and four young goats were already sizzling over the glowing coals, they were entertained with coffee and buttered biscuits, spiced with much good humor and lively conversations. The next day a crowd of at least a thousand people gathered to share in the barbecue and see the prizes distributed. There were speeches by several white planters and business men, and then by several colored farmers and, finally, by the committee of teachers from Tuskegee.

I can perhaps give a better notion of the relations of Mr. McLeod to his tenants and the conditions which prevailed in the community if I quote from his letter to the judges who were to award the prizes for the year. This letter was as follows:

*To the Judges:*

I am glad to be able to report that there has been a decided improvement in conditions over 1910, as seen by me and reported by Mr. Colvard, in efforts on the farm and in the care of work stock, with the exception of three tenants.

There has been general improvement in conduct, no broils, all peaceable amongst themselves, and all seem to have regard for each other, and are ready and willing to receive advice from Mr. Colvard.



There is one case especially. This tenant had gone to the bad from the use of whiskey, but is now making a man of himself and is treating his family as a husband and father should.

I am sorry to report there is one who has not fully reformed, but I am sure that he will profit by the experience of others and during the year 1912 will stand in line with others who are trying to live sober and correct lives.

Of the women, they are keeping cleaner houses and taking better care of the children, which is a decided advance with them.

To improve the conditions of the black man along the lines I have mentioned I have given prizes during the last two years, and feel sure it has been worth while to them and paid me pecuniarily; besides it is quite a satisfaction to see them advance in all of their interests.

(Signed) J. W. McLEOD.

I might add, in conclusion, that the committee of teachers from Tuskegee who acted as judges were greatly impressed with the results that have been obtained by these methods, not only in the way of improvement upon the farms, but also in the homes. As one committee who inspected the different homes on the plantation said to me: "One woman kept her house so clean and so attractive inside and out that we were ashamed to go in it." What I have said concerning this and other Negro rural communities, both on and off the large plantations, is an indication of what can and is being made of farming life by Negroes under favorable conditions; that is to say, where they have had a chance.



## SOUTHERN AGRICULTURE, PLANTATION SYSTEM, AND THE NEGRO PROBLEM

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*The Problem of the Negro is the Negro.*—This is no mere truism. Rather, it is the proposition which has been the chief basis of disagreement between the North and South with respect to the negro. The North has assumed the negro's degradation and lack of progress as due to the repression of his social environment. The South has emphatically asserted that the negro is the source of his own misfortunes.

That Southern institutions are repressive in their influence will be shown in the following pages. On the whole, however, the negro is the cause of the institutions, which in turn react upon his condition.

I wish to confine this article in substance to a brief statement of the relation of Southern agriculture to the negro problem. I may be pardoned, however, for prefacing this statement with a brief summary of those peculiarities of negro psychology which most intimately condition his economic reactions, even at the risk of some reiteration.

The negro is a good cotton "hand"; that is, he can perform the large amount of purely mechanical labor which that crop demands. Possessed of great endurance, especially with respect to exposure to heat and malaria, with a low standard of living, and willing to supplement his own labor with that of his wife and children, it is probable that, under effective supervision, he can more than hold his own.

Moreover, the average Southern negro farmer knows how to "make cotton"; is familiar with the routine methods generally followed in his district. In spite of this, the average negro farmer is a pitiful failure when not subject to white supervision. In the vast majority of cases his farm is apt to become a weed patch. This, because the negro lacks two essential economic qualities. He is generally incapable of steady and purposeful labor when left alone,



and he is equally lacking in judgment. Added to this is his normal thriftlessness which prevents him from accumulating the necessary equipment.

This is the significance of the Black Belt. It has been several times pointed out that the negroes in the Black Belt are noticeably more immoral, more thriftless and generally more irresponsible than those who reside in localities less entirely inhabited by negroes, as, for instance, the cheap pine lands of Texas, Louisiana and Arkansas. This difference would be obvious to the most casual observer traveling in the South. It is confirmed likewise by statistics of illiteracy and per capita wealth.<sup>1</sup> Freed from the powerful social coercion of a negro environment, the negroes outside of the Black Belt are also less numerous relatively to the white population, and thus subjected to the influential stimulus of white example, which is especially beneficial in the field of family relations.

The contrast is not so marked, however, in the economic life of the two regions. The isolated negro family in the regions of poor land frequently has the advantage of land ownership, and this, together with the absence of a negro social environment, makes for a greater thrift. The very slight superiority in this respect is more than offset by the loss from lack of the white supervision, by which negro agriculture is so greatly benefited under the regime of plantation organization. Indeed, the negro's lack of economic qualities is the *raison d'être* of the Southern plantation system, which is the most important economic institution connected with the negro problem.

The industrial superiority of the plantation system has been conclusively demonstrated by the sure test of economic survival. In the early decades of the nineteenth century, when the tide of immigration was moving westward, the plantation system supplanted the primitive economy of the squatter farmers who were its forerunners. This process was a continuous one in the ante-bellum period. The small farming class on the superior cotton lands became fewer, while the planting economy increased its industrial dominance.<sup>2</sup> Likewise, in the reorganization since the war, the plantation system has become

<sup>1</sup> Bulletin 8 of the *Permanent Census*, "Negroes in the United States," pp. 95-98. *Vide* especially R. P. Brooks, "A Local Study of the Race Problem," *Political Science Quarterly*, June, 1911.

<sup>2</sup> U. B. Phillips. "The Origin and Growth of the Southern Black Belts," in *American Historical Review*, July, 1906.



an important system of agricultural organization, especially in the best cotton lands.

Since the abolition of slavery destroyed an important criterion, it is not easy to define the post-bellum plantation system. The name plantation is employed very loosely. In its broadest sense, it is used to signify any large land holding operated with any degree of unity. The limits of this article do not permit a detailed description of the many varieties of the so-called plantation system nor of the special features of plantation organization. In the sugar region the plantation is frequently a highly organized business with a half million dollars invested in agriculture and possessing the elaborate organization of a great factory.

At the other extreme is the cotton plantation worked by tenants who rent the land and receive the occasional advice of the landlord or merchant. The tenant keeps his own stock and to a large extent runs the place to suit himself. So loose is the organization that it is doubtful whether the name "plantation" should be applied to it. Between these extremes there are many variations with respect to closeness of supervision and of organization, as well as in size.

The prerequisite of large scale industry in agriculture, and, therefore, of the plantation system, is a stable labor supply. Before the war, this was secured by the institution of slavery. Immediately after the war various forms of tenancy as well as wage labor appear to have been resorted to.<sup>3</sup> The latter arrangement has proven generally unsatisfactory for plantation organization, because the laborer has no financial interest in the outcome of his labor. Consequently, he may quit his work at the most critical time. Moreover, he must be closely watched during every hour of his labor to prevent shirking. At present, the plantation system based primarily on hired labor is of little importance outside of the sugar region.<sup>4</sup>

It is to be noted, however, that as agricultural methods become more intensive, the tendency toward hired labor is greater because

<sup>3</sup>The industrial history of the first twenty years after the war is extremely obscure, especially as there are no census statistics of tenancy until 1880. No adequate monograph exists on the subject, although one or two studies have been made of post-bellum reorganization for particular states; notably A. E. Cance, *Tenancy in Mississippi*, and E. M. Banks, *Land Tenure in Georgia*.

<sup>4</sup>To judge the importance of hired labor as the basis of the plantation system from the census statistics of agricultural laborers would result in a tremendous exaggeration; for the census figures include women, and children over ten years of age, as well as casual laborers working in harvest and laborers outside of the plantation belts.



the cost of supervision becomes relatively smaller. There are indications that this tendency is increasing at the present time in the South.

On account of the drawbacks of the labor system, tenancy has become the standard method of employing negro labor. It insures a deeper interest in the crop and economizes supervision. It likewise transfers a portion of the risk to the tenant. In the South tenancy has assumed several characteristic forms which must be described briefly to make clear the relation of the present industrial organization of Southern agriculture to the negro problem. Confining ourselves to the most important forms, and omitting the limited sugar and rice regions, three important tenant systems may be distinguished.

In the cash or standing rent system the negro pays a fixed amount of cotton lint per acre or per farm. In the eastern part of the cotton belt, and sporadically in the western part, this system is known as "renting." It is almost invariably characterized by very loose methods of supervision and organization. The landlord has little interest in the result of the crop or the efficiency of the methods employed, provided the rent is paid. He is generally an absentee and is not represented by a resident manager.

There are two principal forms of share tenancy. In the first, the landlord furnishes all the expenses of making the crop except the labor, both parties sharing equally in the crop. This is popularly known as "cropping." In the second form the landlord furnishes the land; and the tenant provides the labor, mules and implements. The landlord receives as rent one-third of the corn and one-fourth of the cotton. There are other minor variations of this system. Geographically, the cropping system is prevalent in all parts of the South. The third and fourth system, however, exists chiefly west of the Mississippi. Usually the cropping system is characterized by exceedingly close supervision and organization, because the planter has risked mules and implements as well as land in the negro's care and has a large interest in the outcome. Therefore, the cropping system, especially in the western South, is prominent in the rich alluvial bottoms and other regions of superior cotton lands.

The third and fourth system is normally a much looser form of organization than the cropping system. Sometimes where the third



and fourth renter is on the better lands, he is almost as closely supervised as is the cropper, but normally the third and fourth system are most prominent in those poor lands which do not demand close plantation organization.

The prevalence of the cropping system on the better lands is to be explained by several facts. In the first place, these superior cotton lands, with the exception of the Texas Black Prairie, were the seats of the ante-bellum plantation system. Since the negro has largely remained in the old situs, the natural connection between the plantation system and the necessity for supervising negro labor finds expression here. Again, economic forces have heretofore made a one-crop system most profitable on the best cotton lands of the South. Normally, the plantation system has proven itself best adapted to the production of one main market crop. It is obvious, too, that the greater value of the superior lands places a premium upon the more efficient supervision. In many parts of the South, particularly in the Southwest, these superior lands consist of river bottoms where the difficulties of coping with floods and the greater abundance of weeds and noxious insects place an additional premium on good management, while at the same time the prevalence of malaria forces a reliance on negro labor.

The merits of the plantation system must be estimated in terms of two all-important considerations: First, in its relation to social production and its efficacy in producing temporary social and economic order in a population of the lowest industrial capacity; second, in its relation to the welfare of the negro and the ultimate promotion of negro progress.

It is apparent that the plantation system, judged from the point of view of social production merits considerable approbation. It has been the means whereby the negro has been made a serviceable factor in Southern industry. This accomplishment must be reckoned an important offset to the disadvantages of the system.

It is easy, however, to overestimate the importance of the plantation system as a bulwark of Southern agricultural organization. In the above analysis of the several systems of tenancy, it was pointed out that only one of the three forms, the so-called cropping system, implies a sufficiently close industrial organization to merit this approbation. The relative importance of this system to the other forms cannot be stated with precision until the publica-



tion of the Thirteenth Census. It may be said with confidence, however, that it comprises a relatively small proportion of the entire industry carried on by negro labor in the South.

Before proceeding to estimate the relation of the plantation system to negro progress, it is necessary to refer briefly to another factor which is intimately connected with all the forms of agricultural organization—the credit system. The plantation system as a form of coherent industrial organization is limited in extent; but the credit system is co-extensive with negro agriculture. The negro who owns clear title to his industrial equipment or possesses enough capital to furnish provisions throughout the year is exceptional.

There are three main sources from which the negro secures these necessities on credit—the plantation owner, the merchant and the bank. Generally speaking, the landlord credit is most prominent in the region of close plantation organization; the merchant credit in those districts of absentee landlordism and absence of close organization. The bank is a comparatively unimportant source of credit to the negro farmer. It is, however, becoming increasingly important. Attracted into the field by high rates of interest, the influence of the banker's competition is in the direction of lowering and standardizing the terms of credit transactions. Most such loans are on security of chattels and crop liens, frequently with a waiver of the landlord's lien. As yet, they are confined to the more responsible class of tenants.

The credit system has been so closely associated with the plantation system in the South that it has sometimes been forgotten that they are two separate institutions. The latter, we have seen, has no small social utility. On the other hand, the only justification of the credit system has been that no better arrangement has been developed for the performance of a very necessary function. The general defects of the credit system have been pointed out so frequently that it is not necessary to enter into a full description of its method of operation. The most vicious aspects of the system are due to the negro himself. The negro is so thriftless that he prefers to borrow rather than to accumulate enough for his living expenses while making his crop. He is so ignorant and so careless of consequences that he will accept almost any terms. The same ignorance prevents him from keeping any account of the advances, although this is partly due to the fact that in case of discrepancy the lender's



account will prevail. Very generally also the planter markets the tenant's crop—almost invariably so under the cropping system—and the tenant is equally helpless to determine the justice of the final settlement.

The inevitable result is exploitation of the sheerest type; high prices for supplies, high interest charges, sometimes falsification of accounts. There is no doubt that such exploitation is very general throughout the South. It does not, as a rule, violate the letter of common honesty, as, for instance, by the falsification of accounts. More often it is merely the advantage which the very strong takes of the very helpless. Not infrequently it is tempered by moderation. The situation was picturesquely expressed by a negro man in the Brazos Valley in Texas, whom I was questioning. "Boss," said he, "some cuts de nigger too close to de bone, but dey all gash him a little." Then he supplemented his statement by the doggerel which has become almost commonplace:

"Naught is a naught  
And a figger's a figger;  
All fur de white man,  
And naught for de nigger."

The credit system has been the basis of the so-called peonage which has been practiced in the South. The negro has no property which can serve as security for a debt. At the same time he must be advanced the necessary means of livelihood while making the crop. The lender has only one way of collecting the debt—by compelling the negro to work it out. This, however, is illegal under the thirteenth amendment, which forbids involuntary servitude except for crime.

The latter exception has been variously employed by Southern legislatures as a means of escaping the operation of the amendment. The Alabama law, for instance, made it a criminal offense for a negro to accept advances, under contract to work, and then violate that contract, on the ground that it is obtaining money under false pretenses. This law was declared unconstitutional last year in a decision of the Supreme Court of the United States on the ground that it is a mere subterfuge by means of which the constitutional provision is evaded. Typical peonage laws of another sort found in a number of Southern states provide that any planter who employs a negro indebted to another planter, becomes responsible



for the debt. Although there is less practice of peonage now than a few years ago, the present methods of coercion are more subtle and more difficult of conviction. Usually negroes are so densely ignorant that they know little of their rights under the law. There are thousands who have no idea how to obtain legal redress. It is easy to impose on such credulity to effect a practically coerced service. The mere moral prestige of the white and the fear of physical violence, rarely employed, but always a potentiality, are often sufficient.

Yet, evil as it is, peonage has been the outgrowth of a felt need; viz., a credit system by which the negro tenant may be furnished credit with a minimum of risk. The vicious system which forces the negro to hypothecate his labor to obtain credit results inevitably in divorcing the planter's interest from those of his tenant. The negro is retained chiefly by keeping him in debt. Not only does this intensify the tendency to petty exploitation, but negro thrift becomes contrary to the planter's interest. To encourage a negro to make his garden or "raise his meat" lessens his dependence on his master's store or commissary. If, moreover, the negro is caught stealing or "shooting craps," the master pays the fine and adds it to the negro's debt. In this way his hold over the laborer is strengthened. The natural result is a complaisant tolerance on the master's part toward such petty crimes as do not seriously injure himself. Thus the credit system has operated to intensify a tendency toward racial separation already growing rapidly.

In judging, therefore, of the merits of the two foremost industrial institutions, the plantation system and the credit system, it appears fairly certain that the latter, not the former, is chiefly responsible for the principal evils. There is a great need for the reform of the credit system. Divorced of its connection with this, the plantation system may be regarded as neither a great good nor a great evil. Its chief service has been in the field of production. It offers little or nothing to the solution of the negro problem. It is not conducive to negro progress ethically or economically. The establishment of social and industrial order was an important service, but the time has passed when we can afford to be content with a mere preservation of the *status quo*.

Nor will mere change in the negro's industrial condition be adequate. If every negro family in the South could be given the



ownership of a farm, it would not result in a permanent solution of the negro problem. With the present habits of inefficiency and thriftlessness, the negro could not retain the position thus artificially achieved against the force of modern competition.

On the other hand, the problem is more than educational. The impression prevails in the South that the ordinary form of education is worse than wasted. Even the industrial education promoted by Booker T. Washington and others is not to be regarded as a cure-all, although undoubtedly a means of uplift. The ethical basis of negro life must be profoundly changed before much can be hoped for. It is necessary to create for the negro a family life; to develop sentiments and motives which shall result in a social conscience in the race itself. It is hopeless to expect economic stability and thrift in a race whose family ties are temporary and based chiefly on animalism.

The negro's religion is the greatest obstacle to his ethical progress. It satisfies largely the craving for emotional excitement, with little emphasis on standards of conduct. The negro preacher, as a type, is an adept at arousing emotion, and very frequently a libertine and a scoundrel. It is the prevailing opinion in all sections of the South from which I have obtained information on the subject, that the negro preacher very frequently employs the prestige of his position as a means of gratifying his baser passions.

It remains to point out, not the means of solving the negro problem, but the method of approach. This huge protean shadow with which the old order grappled does not possess the same sinister menace for the new; for the negro problem is losing its sectional character and is becoming national in the sense of uniting the interests of both sections in its solution.

Among the causes of this should be mentioned the increasing social and industrial integration of the nation and the increased stream of negro migration to the North. Most influential of all is the increasing realization of the South that its industrial prosperity is largely dependent upon a progressive solution of the negro problem. Southern prosperity must depend on an extensive immigration of Northern capital and Northern industrial experience, which has heretofore been deterred by the peculiar institutions of the South.

In readjusting our point of view, it will be recognized that no



key can be found in the *egalitarian* philosophy of the eighteenth century; in the splendid idealism, which attempted to clothe a savage in the outward garb of civilization and citizenship, under the assumption that he was only prevented from rising to the full stature of the Anglo-Saxon by the repression of his environment.

The war freed the negro from the repressive influence of slavery. It also deprived him of the guidance and support for which he had looked to his master. Brought suddenly face to face with a high civilization, the resulting adjustment has been inadequate. Far better for all concerned had the negro's bondage been modified gradually. As it is, the problem must be approached under the hampering obstacles imposed by utterly impractical legislation. Worse still, it is impossible to rely on the close and friendly paternalistic relation which formerly united master and slave.

The question of social equality should be eliminated for the present. It is an absolute impossibility in the Southern States, whatever its ultimate desirability. This question has been settled in the far South with a finality that brooks no questioning. The negro accepts the relation as a matter of course. It is in the border states where the issue has not been so decisively settled that the real friction exists.

The most casual observer must admit that the policy as applied in the South has been an unusually effective method of controlling a race that would too easily drift into crime and license. A mighty change, however, must be wrought in the Southern point of view. It is necessary to undo the evil work of fifty years. The South must develop a greater sense of social responsibility with respect to the negro.

Only at one point is there a social consciousness in the South concerning the negro problem, and the essence of that consciousness is repression: "Keep the negro in his place." There is too little desire to deal with the problem in the spirit of improving the negro and making him a better citizen. Indeed, this spirit is impossible so long as the present separation between the races exists. To educate a possible foe is to place in his hands a keen-edged sword: Until the ground is cleared of such obstacles, it is difficult to accomplish practical programs of reform.

That these obstacles appear to be removing themselves is ground for the hope that the negro problem is not impossible of solution.



## THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

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From a humble beginning in the Patent Office in 1839, the work of the federal government relating to agriculture has steadily grown in extent and importance. As a separate department the semi-centennial of the department will occur this year (1912), and for nearly half that time its chief officer has had a seat in the President's cabinet. Its annual appropriations now aggregate about \$20,000,000. Its paid employees number about 13,000, of whom about 2,500 are stationed at Washington. Its agents are found in every state, territory and outlying possession of the United States, and in many foreign countries. In the extent of its business and the variety of its operations it far surpasses any similar organization in the world.

For the past fifteen years, which constitute the period of its most rapid and complete development, it has had the unique experience of being under the general management of the same chief executive, Secretary James Wilson, of Iowa. As a pioneer in the development of our greatest agricultural region, a successful farmer, a politician and congressman of long experience and great popular favor, a student of agricultural science and teacher in an agricultural college, he came to the department with experience and qualifications which fitted him in a very unusual degree for the great task ahead of him.

As a member of the cabinet under three presidents, he has taken an active part in the general administrative work of the government and in the political activities which under our form of government are inseparable from such a position.

In the management of the department he has maintained a broad and non-partisan policy as regards both the lines and location of its work and the appointment and retention of its personnel. The interests of all parts of the country have been carefully and impartially considered in the development of the department's work. The permanent tenure of office for efficient employees has been jealously guarded, the great mass of appointments have been regularly made



from the registers of the Civil Service Commission, and the relatively large number of technical and scientific experts and agents, who in accordance with special legislation and regulations have been appointed outside the classified civil service, have been chosen with reference to their qualifications for the work expected of them. As a whole, the general policy of the department will compare favorably with that of our best educational and scientific establishments maintained as public institutions. It is certainly very encouraging that the elevation of the department to the first rank of governmental establishments and its consequently close union with the presidential office have resulted in a progressive development of non-partisan policies and scientific ideals and practices in the conduct of its business.

The act of congress of 1862 which gave the department its separate existence laid the general foundation for its work in these words: "There is hereby established at the seat of government of the United States a department of agriculture, the general designs and duties of which shall be to acquire and diffuse among the people of the United States useful information on subjects connected with agriculture in the most general and comprehensive sense of that word and to procure, propagate and distribute among the people new and valuable seeds and plants." Information was to be gathered "by means of books and correspondence and by practical and scientific experiments, by the collection of statistics and by any other appropriate means."

Special legislation has since further defined and extended the functions of the department. Some duties outside the pale of agriculture however broadly defined have been committed to the department's charge. On the other hand, the definition of agriculture as applied to the work of educational and scientific institutions has been so widened in recent years that the operations of the department—extensive and far-reaching as they are—do not yet in all respects cover the field of work marked out for it in its charter.

In its "most general and comprehensive sense" as applied to institutions for its promotion agriculture now includes not only whatever relates to the production of plants and animals useful to man and their use as closely related with their production, but also much that has to do with the organization and life of rural communities. Under this definition the main divisions of agriculture



are (1) plant production, including agronomy (field crops), horticulture and forestry; (2) animal production, including the breeding, feeding and management of animals, and veterinary medicine; (3) agrotechny, including the standardization of agricultural products as regards purity, efficiency, etc., and the manufacture of such products as are closely related with the farm (*e. g.*, dairying, sugar-making, etc.); (4) rural engineering, including roadmaking, irrigation, drainage, farm buildings and machinery, etc.; (5) rural economics and sociology.

The broadest work of the department has been on matters relating to plant production and has covered widely agronomy, horticulture and forestry. Under animal production the greatest work has been in veterinary medicine. The work on breeding, feeding and management of animals has been quite limited as compared with that done by the agricultural colleges and experiment stations, but is more definitely organized and in recent years has been considerably expanded. Under agrotechny a large amount of work has been done in the establishment of standards for foods and seeds, and the determination of adulterations of these materials. Considerable work has been done on matters relating to sugar-making, dairying, etc. In recent years the work of the department relating to roads, irrigation and drainage has been definitely organized and is rapidly expanding. Though the United States far surpasses the other nations in the manufacture and use of farm machinery, and though this involves large economic and social questions vitally affecting our rural communities, very little attention has been given to these subjects by the department, and congress has not been willing to extend its work in these lines. Aside from the regular collection of crop statistics and the publication in a limited way of information bearing on economic problems the department has thus far done very little in rural economics and sociology. In recent years, however, it has given some attention to studies of the distribution of agricultural products and the problems of farm management.

As perhaps a natural outgrowth of its functions relating to the industry which is most fundamental to human life and civilization, the department has taken on an increasing amount of work outside the field of agriculture. Such, for example, is a large part of the work of the Weather Bureau, the inspection of drugs, investigations



on human nutrition, studies of household and disease-causing insects, biological investigations relating to human disease, etc. Part of this has been given to the department under a wise administrative policy which seeks to make the most effective use of existing governmental agencies and facilities instead of creating new ones.

At the outset the educational and scientific institutions organized in this country for the promotion of agriculture dealt very largely with the sciences related to agriculture rather than with agriculture itself. This tendency was manifested in the organization of the department, where divisions were created for studies in chemistry, botany, entomology, ornithology and mammology. About the time of Secretary Wilson's coming to the department a movement arose to enlarge and specialize the more strictly agricultural work of the land-grant colleges and to base the organization of the colleges of agriculture on the divisions of agriculture considered as both an art and a science. In the department the Bureau of Animal Industry had already been established. All the work in agronomy, horticulture and agricultural botany was brought together in the Bureau of Plant Industry. Bureaus of forestry and soils and an office of public roads were created. The Weather Bureau was brought into the department. There are now also bureaus of chemistry, entomology, biological survey, and statistics. In 1888 the office of experiment stations was created to represent the department in its relations with the state experiment stations. This office has since been charged with investigations in irrigation, drainage, human nutrition and agricultural education. The great expansion of the department's work in lines directly relating to the practice of agriculture has given it a much wider and stronger influence among our rural people. At the same time the scientific work in lines related to agriculture has been greatly broadened and strengthened.

To understand the broad influence which the department now has among all classes of our people and the results which it has been able to accomplish in the promotion of agriculture, it is necessary to consider at least the main divisions of its work. Broadly classified the functions of the department are (1) administrative, (2) advisory, (3) investigational, (4) informational, and (5) educational.

Under administrative duties are those relating to the enforcement of the meat inspection, food and drug and insecticide and



fungicide laws with regard to both domestic and imported products; the control of quarantine for imported cattle and of interstate quarantine rendered necessary by sheep and cattle diseases and the inspection of cattle carrying vessels; the management of the national forest reserves; the regulation of interstate commerce of game animals and the control of the importation of noxious and other animals; the congressional seed distribution; the supervision of the federal funds granted to the state agricultural experiment stations and the direct management of the stations in Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico and Guam.

The meat inspection includes the ante-mortem and post-mortem inspection of cattle, sheep, swine and goats slaughtered at establishments engaged in interstate or foreign commerce; the supervision of such establishments and of the various processes of preparing, curing, canning, packing, etc., so as to insure sanitary conditions, equipment and methods; the marking and certification of meats and meat products; and the regulation of interstate transportation and exportation of such products. This inspection is carried on at 936 establishments in about 255 cities and towns. In 1911 there were inspected at slaughter 52,976,948 animals and 1,127,055 carcasses or parts of carcasses were condemned. The inspected animals furnished 10,000,000,000 pounds of meat. On reinspection 210,073,577 pounds of meat were condemned which had become unfit for food since the time of slaughter.

Live stock is also inspected at points of shipping, in transit and at market centers, cars are disinfected and quarantining and other measures are taken to eradicate or prevent the spread of contagious diseases of animals through interstate commerce. The quarantine against Texas fever of cattle in the southern states is being gradually restricted through the eradication of the ticks causing this disease. About 140,000 square miles, or one-fifth of the original infected area, have been cleared of ticks and released from quarantine during the past five years. In a similar way the parasitic diseases known as scabies of sheep and cattle, against which quarantine is necessary, are being eradicated in the western states. Over 1,000,000 doses of black leg vaccine were sent out and about 500,000 doses of tuberculin and mallein were furnished to local officials for the diagnosis of tuberculosis and glanders.

Inspections of hundreds of thousands of American and Cana-



dian animals for export are annually made, as well as of all animals imported from foreign countries.

The manufacture of 44,115,058 pounds of renovated butter was supervised at thirty-eight factories in thirteen states. The certifying of the pure breeding of all animals imported for breeding purposes has been undertaken under a provision of the tariff act.

The extensive operations of the department relating to animal industry have great economic importance. Their influence is broadly national and international. They affect profoundly the economic conditions relating to the growing of domestic animals and the commerce in them and their products. The quality and prices of animals and meat on the farm and in the market are in a measure determined by government regulation.

The same things may be said regarding the department's enforcement of the food and drugs act. Through its laboratory in the Bureau of Chemistry at Washington and twenty-one branch laboratories scattered throughout the country, the department is exercising a rigid inspection of a great variety of foods and drugs which enter into interstate and foreign commerce. Nearly one thousand two hundred cases were reported the past year for criminal prosecution or seizure of adulterated and misbranded goods. Besides its economic results as affecting the marketing, storage and prices of such materials, this work, as well as that of meat inspection, has a broad influence on the health of people in both city and country.

The management of the national forests involves the administrative control of 192,000,000 acres or 300,000 square miles of territory in the western states and Alaska,—a domain equivalent to the combined areas of Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois and Iowa. About 500,000,000 board feet of lumber were cut in the forests last year and the contracts for sale entered into during the year disposed of over \$2,000,000 worth of timber. Grazing permits, issued for 8,898,500 animals, yielded \$935,490. Extensive operations in road building, fire protection and reforestation are going on. A beginning has been made of the examination and purchase of forest lands in the White Mountains and the Southern Appalachians under the Weeks act, approved March 1, 1911. The policy of the department, as stated by Secretary Wilson, is to maintain, protect and improve the vast tract in the national forests for the public benefit and for



use as public utilities. "Their primary uses are to produce continuous supplies of timber and to regulate the flow of water. Subordinate to these uses, yet of large importance, are their use for grazing, for recreation and for many kinds of occupancy." When the national forests are fully developed and utilized it is evident that they will be a large factor in the agriculture of the country and in its industrial development.

Through its Biological Survey the department is doing much to prevent the rapid destruction of game animals and birds, to establish public game preserves and bird reservations, and to prevent the importation of animals likely to become pests. In a similar way the Bureau of Entomology is aiding the states in maintaining a quarantine against the further spread of the gipsy and brown-tail moth, which have already proved so destructive in eastern New England, and is co-operating with the forest service in the war on forest insects.

The supervision of the federal funds granted to the state experiment stations has been committed to the office of experiment stations. These funds now aggregate \$1,440,000 annually, and are given to forty-eight states and territories. They are supplemented by more than an equal amount derived from the states and local sources. This office also has administrative control of the stations in Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico and Guam, for which congress annually appropriates over \$100,000. The operations of the sixty-five stations in the United States cover every phase of the country's manifold agricultural industries.

The purchase, testing and distribution of vegetable and flower seeds on the orders of congressmen, which originally was the largest function of the department, is now a minor administrative matter. Between six and seven hundred tons of seeds, in about 60,000,000 packets, were distributed the past season.

In its advisory capacity the department conducts a vast and varied correspondence. Besides this there are some large operations which have in them an important advisory factor. Such, for example, are the daily weather forecasts which are generally available to the farmers, as well as other classes of people, throughout the country. In this category may also be included the monthly crop reports, the national soil survey and the co-operative farm demonstration work in the southern states.



Many agents of the department are now giving much time to personally advising the farmers in the districts where they are located. Notable examples of this are the services of the department's road, irrigation and drainage engineers, who are now widely sought for as consulting experts concerning large, difficult or special problems which are not easily handled by the local authorities. In a similar way the office of experiment stations has had a broad influence on the development of the agricultural colleges, schools and experiment stations. The advisory work of the department shows an interesting development of a relatively new governmental function. It is evident that the people are looking more and more to the federal government as a broad, expert and impartial agency able and willing to give them advice on many important matters connected with their daily lives. With relatively little administrative control the government is thus able to exert a very great influence in the affairs of the people.

The technical, scientific and practical investigations of the department constitute a large share of its business and cover a very wide range. All the bureaus are engaged in this work and a mere list of the projects would far outrun the limits of this article. They include laboratory investigations in a number of sciences, field experiments in many states and territories, studies of natural conditions and agricultural possibilities on a broad scale, the exploration of many foreign countries for plants, beneficial insects, etc., the devising of means to defend the farmer against fraud or to protect him against the ravages of insects and diseases, economic studies relating to farm management, cost of crop production, etc., etc. Taken together they constitute the largest amount of definite and systematic investigation conducted under a single organization that can be found anywhere in the world. United with the similar work of the state experiment stations, they are accumulating a body of knowledge relating to agriculture which is already by far the largest contribution to the science of agriculture. In this way a broad, sure and permanent foundation for the future agricultural prosperity of the United States is being laid.

As a public agency for the dissemination of information on agricultural subjects the work of the department has reached vast proportions. During the year ended June 30, 1911, the department issued 1,953 publications, aggregating 27,594,877 copies. Many of



these are technical reports of scientific investigations published in small editions, but others are popular in character and are widely distributed. The series of brief farmers' bulletins is largely distributed by congressmen and thus is sent into all the rural districts. Over 9,000,000 copies of farmers' bulletins are distributed annually. The "Yearbook," a bound volume of about seven hundred pages, has an edition of 500,000 copies. Any person in the United States on application can be enrolled on the mailing list to receive regularly the monthly list of department publications, and thus can know about everything which the department publishes. It is the policy to send free of charge any publication the department has in stock and to reprint as long as there is any considerable demand. After that applicants are referred to the superintendent of documents at the government printing office, from whom any document can be procured at a nominal price. The department publishes summaries of its own publications, those of the state experiment stations, and all other literature of agricultural science published throughout the world in the journal entitled "Experiment Station Record." This is sent to numerous institutions and scientists and may be found in hundreds of libraries in this country and abroad. The department library contains about 116,000 books and pamphlets, chiefly on agricultural subjects, and currently receives nearly two thousand periodicals. This library is freely open to readers and books are loaned to agricultural colleges and experiment stations and other scientific institutions. The officers of the department deliver numerous lectures before farmers' institutes, agricultural, scientific and other organizations in all parts of the country. A vast amount of information is also distributed by correspondence and through the agricultural and general press.

The department, however, is not content with distributing agricultural information, but goes further than this and directly promotes agricultural education throughout the United States. It does this because it believes that in the long run the permanent prosperity of our agriculture and the highest welfare of our rural people, as well as of the whole nation, will depend on the trained ability of our farmers and their families to make the best use of our lands and to maintain well organized rural communities. The rural people, therefore, need a sound and thorough education which will adapt them to their environment and make them efficient workers



in the service of mankind. There should be a broad education for citizenship and life in the modern world, including a fair share of training in the science and art of agriculture and home economics. The department is, therefore, giving much attention to agricultural education.

The office of experiment stations is especially charged with the educational business of the department, but the other bureaus are also doing much to promote this cause. The work is largely done in co-operation with the United States Bureau of Education, the Association of American Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, the state departments of education and agriculture. The general purpose is to collect and distribute information regarding the progress of agricultural education throughout the world, to study the agricultural and pedagogical requirements of a modern educational system for rural people, to aid the several states in broadening and redirecting their school system to meet these requirements, to supply the schools with the knowledge accumulated by the department and the experiment stations which can be utilized to make their courses in agriculture and home economics more satisfactory and effective, and to carry on propaganda, as far as may be necessary, among our rural people, in the interests of improved methods of education.

This work is done partly through publications, but more largely by public addresses and conferences with educational and agricultural leaders in the several states. It covers broadly the work of the agricultural colleges, secondary and elementary schools, farmers' institutes and other forms of extension work. The Bureau of Plant Industry is contributing largely to this latter phase of the educational movement by distributing seeds for school gardens and by forming boys' and girls' clubs for the growing of corn, canning of tomatoes, etc., in co-operation with the public schools in the South.



## ORIGIN AND GROWTH OF RURAL CONFERENCES

BY CLARENCE SEARS KATES,  
Pennsylvania Rural Progress Association.

This paper is to treat of the origin and growth of conferences on rural conditions, and as *THE ANNALS* are read by a special class, those whose tendencies are sociological, I wish to emphasize that aspect of the rural problem. To those who have considered the problem approaching it from the rural standpoint the terms are interchangeable almost to the point of identity. The rural problem is rural sociology.

The first meeting that may be called a rural conference was held in 1901 in Morris, Connecticut, and was called at the instance of Rev. F. A. Holden. The first large conference was held at the University of Michigan in 1902, under the combined auspices of the Michigan Political Science Association and the agricultural college of the university.

These widely separated meetings were the result of efforts to bring the specialist into close touch with the more general phases of rural life and to secure breadth and wholeness in considering the problem and assure well-balanced progress. The "problem" arises out of the fact that it has been generally forgotten that the nation's wealth comes from the soil. That truth became obscured in the United States due to the tremendous development of manufactures and mining, resulting in the development of the city and almost complete neglect of the country. What, therefore, can be done to arrest the deterioration of the rural forces, man and soil?

The scattered efforts made toward the solution of the question sprang into the dignity of a "movement" from three events. The first was the action of Victor Emmanuel III, King of Italy, who in 1905 called upon the governments of the world to send delegates to Rome to consider methods for the promotion of the interests of the rural population. Thirty nations sent delegates to this conference. The United States was represented by David Lubin, of California, to whose initiative the project was due. The call resulted in the formation of the International Institute of Agriculture. The king



has given the Institute a large endowment from his private funds and in consideration of its establishing its headquarters in Rome, has had a palace built for its permanent use. It seeks to ameliorate the conditions of rural life and is making a comparative study of the economic, sociological and financial institutions bearing thereon.

The next great event was President Roosevelt's creation of the National Conservation Commission in June, 1908. This body was requested to undertake the compiling of an inventory of the natural resources of the United States—the forests, mines, rivers and soils. This inventory was printed as a senate document and "is the first inventory of natural resources ever made by any nation, forming one of the most fundamentally important documents ever laid before the American people."

And lastly as contributory to the elevation of the problem into a movement was President Roosevelt's appointment of the Country Life Commission in August, 1908. The tremendous publicity given by the press of the nation to the current progress of the commission's investigations was of inestimable value. The public was continually having its attention directed to the work, with the result that a wide and deep impression was made upon the public mind. This was doubly fortunate, because the refusal of congress to arrange for the adequate distribution of the commission's report would have been largely successful in withholding the results of the investigation from general knowledge. The report shows the general condition of farming life in the open country and points out the larger problems; it indicates ways in which the government, national and state, may show the people how to solve some of these problems and suggests a continuance of the work the commission began. The Spokane Chamber of Commerce printed the report, as the small edition of the government's issue was soon exhausted. The report now is issued as one of a series of volumes in the Young Farmer's Library. The above is mentioned somewhat in detail to show the difficulties that the movement earlier had to contend with and yet how the inherent value of the movement forces itself forward.

I now append two typical programs of state conferences, one of the West and one of the East, and together they excellently serve to illustrate the value of this form of attacking the problem. It will readily be seen that the titles of the programs fall into four divisions—the home, the school, the church, the business.



PROGRAM OF THE MINNESOTA CONSERVATION AND AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT  
CONGRESS, 1910.

Introductory.

Opening Address—Clinton R. Woodruff.

The Agricultural Resources of Minnesota—The Most Rev. John Ireland.

Practical Conservation and Agricultural Development in Minnesota—Governor Adolph O. Eberhart.

The Public Domain and the Nation's Obligations Regarding Its Disposition—Richard A. Ballinger.

Minnesota: A State on the Eve of a Wonderful Future—Professor Albert F. Woods.

The Conservation of Our Soil—S. D. Works.

Elements of Wealth in Minnesota—P. V. Collins.

Conservation of the Home—Mrs. Margaret J. Blair.

The Government and Conservation—George Otis Smith.

Minnesota Peat: A Resource of the Future—Max Toltz.

A Classification and Use Survey of Minnesota's Resources—Professor Frederick E. Clements.

Agricultural Development in Minnesota—Howard Elliott.

The Farm Wealth of Minnesota—Professor E. V. Robinson.

The Conservation of Capital—James J. Hill.

Agriculture: A Science and a Competitive Business—Professor A. E. Chamberlain.

Minnesota's Past, Present, Future—Dr. Cyrus Northrop.

Soil Fertility as a Factor in Crop Production—Coates P. Bull.

The Farmer as a Factor in Crop Production—Professor A. D. Wilson.

Rotation as a Factor in Crop Production—Professor Andrew Boss.

Business Methods in Farming—B. L. Perry.

Beef, Cattle and Sheep in Minnesota—C. W. Glotzfelter.

"Pigs and Clover" in Minnesota—Forest Henry.

The Dairy Industry in Minnesota—Professor T. L. Haecker.

Advantages of Farm Life to a Woman—Mrs. Agnes Whitney Savage.

Co-operation and Advertising, the Key to the Settlement of Minnesota—D. M. Neill.

The Business Side of Farming in Minnesota—Professor John L. Coulter.

The Eve of a State-Wide Development Movement—George Welsh.

For Education, Progress and Poetry in Minnesota Farming—J. Adam Bede.

For Good Roads, Immigration, Agriculture in the Schools—Senator J. M. Hackney.

Industrial Education in the Country School—George F. Howard.

Public School Agriculture: How Taught and How Connected with the Business of Farming—Dick J. Crosby.

Agriculture in the Country High School—A. M. Duncan.

State-Wide Industrial Education—D. D. Mayne.

Education and Conservation—Governor John Burke.

Education and Business, A Study of Current Conditions—Professor Robert R. Denfield.



Conservation of Human Life—Dr. H. M. Bracken.  
Co-Ordination in the Conservation of the Minnesotan—Dr. F. F. Westbrook.  
Minnesota's Resources in Human Life—John S. Fulton, M. D.  
Pure Food in its Relation to Public Health and Conservation—Dr. Harvey W. Wiley.  
Women's Stake in Conservation—Mrs. Caroline Bartlett Crane.  
Business Men and Good Country Roads—George M. Palmer.  
Building Good Roads Out of the Material at Hand—George W. Cooley.  
Highway Legislation and Administration—Robert C. Dunn.  
Good Roads as a Factor in Conservative Development—M. O. Eldridge.  
The Tar Treatment of Roads—Philip L. Sharples.  
New Industrial Enterprises in Minnesota—W. O. McGonagle.  
Forestry and Conservation in Minnesota—J. E. Rhodes.  
Minnesota's Soil and Mineral Resources—Dr. Charles R. Van Hise.  
Waste and Reparation—Henry Wallace.  
Waterways and Water-Powers in Minnesota—Col. J. H. Davidson.  
The Water Wealth of Minnesota—Francis C. Shenhon.  
Canada's Example in Forestry—R. H. Campbell.  
What Drainage Is Doing for Minnesota Agricultural Lands—George T. Ralph.  
Northern Minnesota: A New Empire—Professor Thomas Shaw.  
Farm Drainage as a Factor in Agricultural Conservation—John T. Stewart.  
Practical Co-operation—E. N. Tousley.  
The Conservation of Human Life—Dr. Edward T. Devine.  
The Welfare of the Child—Mrs. Perry Starkweather.  
The Garden School—Mary D. LaRue.  
Conservation of the Moral Forces of the State—Professor F. E. Webster.  
Resolutions.

TENTATIVE PROGRAM OF THE PENNSYLVANIA RURAL PROGRESS ASSOCIATION  
COUNTRY LIFE CONFERENCE, PHILADELPHIA, MARCH 14, 15, 16, 1912.

Address of Welcome—The Mayor.  
Response—Dr. E. E. Sparks, Chairman of Association.  
Mr. J. B. Lippincott, President Philadelphia Society for Promoting Agriculture.  
Conservation of Country Life—Gifford Pinchot.  
Address—Mr. Nathan C. Schaeffer, Superintendent Public Instruction, Pa.  
Address—Hon. N. B. Critchfield, Secretary of Agriculture, Pa.  
Country School Improvement (illustrated with the stereopticon)—O. J. Kern, Superintendent Winnebago County Schools, Rockford, Ill.  
Recreation for Rural Communities (illustrated with stereopticon)—Dr. Myron T. Scudder, Professor of the Science of Education, Rutgers College.  
Federal Aid for Secondary Schools—Dr. T. F. Hunt, Dean of the College of Agriculture, State College, Pa.  
Discussion.



Rural School Education (with demonstration)—Miss Alice G. McCloskey, Lecturer, Rural School Education, College of Agriculture, Cornell University.

Libraries in Rural Districts—Hon. T. L. Montgomery, State Librarian, Harrisburg, Pa.

Federal Work in the South—Hon. O. B. Martin, United States Department of Agriculture.

Discussion.

General Topic—*The Railroad and the Farmer.*

R. C. Wright, General Freight Agent, Pennsylvania Railroad, Chairman.

B. H. Gitchell, Secretary Binghamton Chamber of Commerce—The Relation of the Commercial Organization to the Farmer.

D. A. Brodie, United States Department of Agriculture—Work of the Bureau of Farm Management.

P. H. Burnett, Industrial Commissioner, Lehigh Valley Railroad.

F. R. Stevens, Agriculturist, Lehigh Valley Railroad.

R. L. Russell, General Freight Agent, Philadelphia and Reading Railway—The Reading Railroad and the Farmer.

W. A. Burton, General Manager Eastern Shore of Virginia Produce Exchange—Co-operation.

Movements in Agricultural Extension—Professor H. E. Van Norman, College of Agriculture, State College, Pa.

Educational Value of Agriculture—Professor G. N. Lauman, College of Agriculture, Cornell University.

Boys' and Girls' Club Work (illustrated with stereopticon)—Hon. O. B. Martin, United States Department of Agriculture.

General Topic—*The Rural Church.*

Rev. C. O. Bemies, Pastor, McClellandtown Presbyterian Church, Chairman.

Rev. Warren H. Wilson, President, Board of Home Missions.

Rev. G. F. Wells, Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. Professor Alva Agee, College of Agriculture, State College, Pa.—A Layman's View of the Country Church.

Albert Roberts, Secretary, International Committee of the Y. M. C. A. on County Work—County Work.

Discussion.

Appointment of Committee on Resolutions.

General Topic—*The Farm Home and Rural Sanitation.*

Isolation of Farm Life—Hon. A. B. Farquhar, York, Pa.

Home Economics for the Farm Home—Miss Martha Van Rensselaer, Professor Home Economics, College of Agriculture, Cornell University.

Women and the Grange—Dr. Hannah T. Lyon, Officer, Pennsylvania State Grange.

The Grange—Hon. William T. Creasy, Master, Pennsylvania State Grange.

Rural Sanitation—Dr. Samuel G. Dixon, Commissioner, State Department of Health, Harrisburg, Pa.



Clean Milk Production—Dr. C. J. Marshall, State Veterinarian, Harrisburg, Pa.

Adoption of Resolutions.

The Country Life Movement—Dr. L. H. Bailey, Dean, College of Agriculture, Cornell University.

Country Roads—Superintendent E. M. Bigelow, Department Public Highways, Harrisburg, Pa.

The Rural School—Professor Philander P. Claxton, Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

The observer of sociological activities notes that when those topics are treated in conference in relation to cities, the classic instance being the *Pittsburgh Survey*, they fall at once into the sphere and attention, in fact originate, with sociologists. It must be so with the rural problem. The chief difference between the two activities is merely a more or less separation of the human units, urban, congestion; rural, segregation. There are great underlying principles connected with the rural problem that need the attention and deep study of the political economist. These conferences are, therefore, providing data necessary to be considered by those who are trained to hunt for the underlying social laws, and as such items are now being gathered with but little, if any, method, it is imperative that they be collated and examined to the end that what gaps exist, they be indicated. I believe it is quite within bounds to state that not since John Stuart Mill has any great economist, therefore lesser men, given proper attention to rural economics. Our schools, colleges and universities all need to direct the young students' attention to this question, so that when they go out in the world they will have some idea of the interrelation of *Rus and Urbe*. One result of these conferences is the forming of a group of young economists in the agricultural colleges who are specializing in rural economics.

One may call attention to another aspect generally overlooked, and that is the value of an agricultural education as being equal to the courses in the "humanities" as a means of culture in its fine sense. I append a curriculum which shows how broad is the training given and which naturally includes the two phases of education, the habits of concentration and observation, the former through the languages and mathematics and the latter in the sciences, quite lifting the agricultural training beyond the merely materialistic. The subdivision of the syllabus on rural economics has such familiar



headings as capital, labor, cost-production (quite a modern term), marketing, records and accounts.

## SPECIMEN CURRICULUM

	Hours.		Hours.
Algebra.....	75	Modern languages.....	340
Geometry.....	40	Psychology.....	60
Trigonometry.....	40	Ethics or logic.....	40
Physics (class-room work).....	75	Political economy.....	60
Physics (laboratory work).....	75	General history.....	80
Chemistry (class-room work).....	75	Constitutional law. *.....	50
Chemistry (laboratory work).....	75		
English.....	200	Total.....	1,285

Through the influence of these conferences several states have established country life commissions with appropriations for the work, an instance being California with an appropriation of \$100,000. The chamber of commerce in many cities have their committee on rural affairs. To the Spokane Chamber of Commerce is due the organization of a national conference on rural conditions held in 1911.

The writer in closing cannot but refer to those distinguished men who have been the early leaders in organizing these conferences. - To President K. D. Butterfield, of Massachusetts; Dean L. H. Bailey, New York; Dean T. F. Hunt, of Pennsylvania; Professor H. C. Taylor, Wisconsin; Professor J. L. Coulter, of Minnesota; Assistant Secretary, W. M. Hays, Director A. T. True and Mr. D. F. Crosby, all of Washington, D. C., are largely due the honors for the success these meetings have attained.



PART THREE

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*Rural Social Problems*







## SOCIAL LIFE IN THE COUNTRY

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BY WARREN H. WILSON, PH.D.,

Superintendent Department of Church and Country Life, Board of Home Missions, Presbyterian Church in the United States of America.

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Social life in the country appears in the following forms, in the associations of the family group, in the recreative meetings which grow out of the experiences of labor, in the assemblies of people at the church, in casual public gatherings, not universal among country people, at the country schoolhouse, and most important of all, in the casual meetings of country people at their places of informal association. That is, country life is dependent upon the family group, the church, the school and the store for associative experience. In addition to this, the effect of labor itself is seen in certain reactions in the way of recreation.

Country life has been sifted by the influence of machine industry and of the railroad. The interurban trolley and other centralizing modes of transportation show that in the country there is left no way of getting a living except farming. The country community is dependent upon agriculture for its economic processes which are fundamental.

Moreover, country life is dominated by labor. No other aspect of modern life is so industrialized as country life. It appears that no one, broadly speaking, has remained in the country except those who stay there for a livelihood. The more enterprising, the bolder spirits, the more active members of the population, have been tempted away by the attractions of the city, of the railroad town, of the factory and of the mine. It is true that in some sections, especially of the older states, there is the remainder of an indolent population who live in the country because of lethargy, but such conditions are not prevalent throughout the country. The striking fact on which generalization should be based is that country life has been uniformly made industrial. It presents to the observer a wide aspect of hard labor, long hours and very slight modifications in the way of recreation or social pleasure. There is no leisure, and there is no leadership, broadly speaking, in country life.



This condition takes on a special form in those parts of the country which produce, as almost all parts do now produce, a staple crop. The farm land of the United States is mapped out by the demands of the market, according to the "money crop" of that region. The hard work of farming is thus systematized.

In the hop region, for instance, work is seasonal and the processes of labor are rigorously defined by the possibilities of the crop and the demands of the market. The same may be said of the wheat, corn or tobacco region.

Work in the dairy country is not so much seasonal, as it is systematic. The work for the various hours of the day is as rigorously prescribed to the dairy farmer as the work for the months of the year is for the tobacco farmer. Everybody in the dairy country goes to bed and rises, he eats and sleeps, he visits or goes to church, according to the exactions of the city market for milk and the physiological possibilities of the dairy cow.

This system on which farm labor is done regulates the social life in the country, according to the normal reactions of work and play. Broadly speaking, this interaction of work and play in any social population obeys a law: systematic labor reacts in organized recreation. Wherever there is a factory town, there is a playground. Wholesome and normal labor conditions produce, quantity for quantity, a normal and wholesome amount of recreative life. Workingmen generally turn after the hours of self-repression and minute regulation to play together. Wage earning involves long hours of involuntary labor. Its processes inhibit voluntary acts and forbid normal activities in self expression. As a result, when the hours of labor are over and the regulations of the factory are lifted, the worker turns to play. This play is generally organized, because the custom of systematic labor reacts in a greater self expression through organized, than through solitary activity.

The same rule dominates country life. Labor being universal, the craving for play is always universal. Allowing for a sifting out of the country population by a process which sends the convivial spirits to the city and the town, the result in the country is the same as in the city. The systematization of work in country communities reacts in a craving for organized recreation, which is the first influence in the social life of country communities.

Nothing impresses the observer of country people so much as



the uniformity of long hours at hard labor. We found in investigating these country conditions in four states that among country people the proportion of those who are regularly industrious exceeds ninety-two per cent. The number who are idlers or are irregularly employed is very small. Those who do not work, and work hard, are by the economic sifting of the population excluded from country communities. It is also true that in the country there is an increasing specialization and systematization of farm labor. The raising of staple crops has organized the open country into districts, and in these regions the whole year is allotted to certain processes. The hours of the day are regulated with little liberty for the farmer. All his time, broadly speaking, is assigned to the regular processes of his industry.

This uniformity of labor and increasing system among farmers would lead one to expect a reaction in the way of organized recreation, for in other sections of the population organized work leads to organized play. Social life is adapted to the system followed by labor, and social intercourse is stimulated by the very intensity with which men apply themselves to organized work. But in the country, if the same law works, its effect must be discovered in three ways.

First of all, the worker in the country takes his reaction in a solitary form. The play spirit does not in so far organize men in social life. Refreshment after labor does not stimulate, but rather diminishes social intercourse. These solitary recreations are hunting, fishing and similar sports, the total quantity of which, however, is bound to diminish as time passes.

Second. The working of this law of systematic play as a corollary of systematic labor doubtless expels from the country community the convivial types of men and tends to select for the country community the more staid and unemotional, the more austere and repressive types of men.

Third. The working of this law doubtless builds up in the large towns and villages an artificial social life, almost entirely commercialized, in moving-picture shows, saloons, billiard halls, lodge rooms, the quantity of which is greater in these towns and even in the villages, because it is excluded from the open country.

This concentration of social life in the large villages and towns and in the smaller cities is a striking fact in the country. I think



it is one of the most lamentable conditions affecting country life. To begin with, the farmer, while in the large town, is away from home and released from the customs and traditions of his own neighborhood. He is out of the inspection and away from the normal checks and obligations of his own community. The situation tends to a letting down of moral standards and to a loosening of scruples in regard to moral conduct. It tends also mightily toward the removal of the young people and the working people from the farm. If it be allowed that there is vital connection between work and play, it follows that the situation in which play is concentrated in given communities and work is distributed over other communities, the allurements of the communities in which recreation is provided will prove almost irresistible.

An economic factor entering profoundly into this situation is exhibited in the fact that large towns and small cities throughout the United States generally live not directly off the land about them, but indirectly through the middleman and the bigger cities. These towns in most cases have no market. The farmers of the country round about cannot sell in these towns the produce of their lands. For instance, in the town of Owego, N. Y., in Tioga County, which is a dairy county, the townsmen purchase their butter and dairy products from New York City. Every product of the creamery is priced in this community at a slightly higher rate than that at which it is sold in New York City. The result is that the social life and the religious life of Owego are divorced sharply from that of the country round about. Residents in the country either avoid Owego socially and religiously, or they give up the country and reside in Owego. There is no natural and normal intercourse between town and country.

In such a community, owing to this economic wall around them, it is noticeable that the land within two miles of the town limits is poorly tilled. The attraction of town life is such as to draw away from the farmer his hired hands, his son and his daughter for town work and town wages. Beyond the two-mile zone farming is better done and country life retains some of its normal aspect. Churches are better attended, granges prosper and hired men are found working on the farms. The fundamental cause of this social division between town and country is in the fact pointed out by Sir Horace Plunkett, that the characteristic American town



or small city does not buy its food from the country round about. The land within sight of the city streets of Clearfield, Pa., does not pay the taxes that are laid upon it by the state.

The most important indications of the social tendencies of the community are the casual meetings. Places of informal association have a greater value in socializing than the appointed meeting places of the people. Especially is this true in those communities in which there is no appointment of meeting. We discovered in the Pennsylvania communities that the places of casual meeting are almost exclusively places of trade, such as stores, barber shops, or places of public necessity, as railway stations and post offices. The frequency of meeting in these places occupies a proportionately greater rank than all other meeting places combined. Generally throughout these communities, in which the population is made up of farmers, there is no public and accessible center of association. Club rooms are not provided, lodge rooms are not open, and the casual constant meetings of the people have to be incidental to trade, travel or labor.

These casual meetings in the country community are, it is admitted, a wholly insufficient socializing experience. I desire to note them because of that fact, and as a means of showing further that they impress themselves upon rural society in intensifying the purely economic character of it. The fact that in the country community people meet nowhere except in the store or post office, the railroad station, the blacksmith shop, the grain elevator and on the sidewalk, saturates the social mind with economic commonplaces. People are under the influence of the occasional small talk of buying and selling, of prices, and of the bare necessities of life. There is in these casual meetings little of politics or religion and nothing of art, literature, social reform. The substance of conversation and discussion in such meetings is conditioned by the environment. Traditionally, the farmer talks politics at the country store and discusses religion in the post office; actually, he talks in the store butter and raisins and horses and harnesses and the commonplace experiences which would naturally suggest themselves in a country store. There is, indeed, an occasional tendency, dependent largely upon personalities, to launch into the two fields of politics and religion, but it is doubtful whether the political or religious discussion under such auspices is of value to the state or to the church. The environment of the discussion would probably prevent it.



A factor of increasing consequence in the country is the growth of class consciousness. The country population is rapidly changing in its personnel. Speculation in land is for the present a dominating economic experience in the country. A most extensive change in land ownership is going on, resulting, it is to be hoped, in "the farms passing into the hands of those who will till them to the best advantage." Its present and immediate effects are an injection into the country community of alien human material. Four farmers out of ten throughout the United States are renters. If these tenant farmers were a permanent factor in the rural personnel, the condition would be serious, but they have only a one year's lease on the land. In consequence, their relation to the country is but temporary. The place they occupy in the country population is not measured in terms of their personality, but by the land they till, so that the intimacy of social intercourse in the country is diluted still further by this fluid element poured into the veins of the community through the one-year lease system.

Remembering now, that through machinery the number of people who work in the country is diminished, it is obvious that the old warmth and the one time high intelligence of social intercourse in the country, based upon the industry itself, are much lessened. Unfortunately, the class distinctions in the country do not attain to genial or attractive stages. The country church exhibits this in the fact observed in Pennsylvania that when there is but one class in the country and all men live on the same level, sixty-four per cent of the country churches grow and thrive. When there are two classes in the country who do not eat and drink together, who do not intermarry and who live after differing social modes, only thirty-four per cent of the country churches thrive. But in those communities into which more than two classes have come, sixty-eight per cent of the churches thrive, and increase in membership. This indicates, I think, that the difficulties of social life are at the very greatest when a class distinction first separates country people and in the same community are two modes of social intercourse. In the country community everybody must know everybody else. Men are accustomed to meet weekly and almost daily. Under such conditions, if there be a check upon free intercourse and a limit to the degree of human intimacy on fixed and defined bounds, it has a worse and more hostile effect than



the elaborate distinctions have in the city; for in the city men can select their acquaintances. In the country, a man's whole life is lived, except for a few experiences, in the boundaries of the rural community. The division of the country community into two classes, among a people already diminished or confined by the gravitation of the country life to intercourse with one another, results in a very lamentable state of social feeling and gives to country life a forbidding social aspect.

Coming now to the three institutions worth naming which are general throughout the country, the school, the church and the household, we must recognize that in these three is expressed the American conception of country life. The type of American life on which our ideals have been based and to which our laws have been conformed, the economic type which was apparently in the mind of the writers of the Constitution of the United States, is the type of the household farmer. This economic type is expressed in the residence of the farmer on his own land, which is tilled by the economic group made up of the farmer, his wife, his children and immediate kinsmen. It includes also the hired man and sometimes a hired girl, though the hired man is increasingly difficult to secure and the hired girl has become little more than a tradition.

The one-room school in the country is the institution suited to the economic process of household farming. It is organized on the principle that a minimum of education is needed since the household is sufficient unto itself. The same principle explains the weakness and insufficiency for modern life of the country church. It results, therefore, that the one-room country school makes nowadays, when household farming is a weakened economic mode, little provision for social life. In some districts the school has a few gatherings. In a very few places throughout the country the parents have a custom of meeting in connection with the school, but generally speaking, the teacher's one motive is to earn her insufficient wage. In most cases the teacher never returns for a second year in the same community and the country school is not throughout the United States a social center.

Brilliant exceptions to this statement may be cited. It is more important, however, to recognize the general condition, which is so general that I think it should be taken as an indication that with the alteration of the economic mode in the country and the passing



of the period of household farming, the country school, which was suited unto that period, has been discredited. It appears to have lost the confidence of the farmer. He is not eagerly looking for a better method, but he has ceased to repair the country school and he employs the teacher chiefly because he has to, using little discrimination and having little enthusiasm in the process. It follows, of course, that the country school is an institution of little dynamic value in the country. Without a radical adjustment to country life it cannot be relied on as a center of social life. Those instances in which one-room country schools have been social centers are explained by the personality of the teacher; and we have not a sufficient number of brilliant personalities to lift the institution to the new plane.

The country church, which was erected by the household farmer and adapted to his mode of life, is but little better. Fortunately, it has the advantage of the school, in that it is the place of accustomed meeting for people of all ages, of both sexes and, theoretically, of all classes in the community. Its social value is somewhat intensified also by its conformity to the social cleavage of the community. Unfortunate as it may be, the churches in the country have been churches for land owners, churches for tenants, churches for Scotch-Irish, churches for the Pennsylvania Germans. Wherever there was a social distinction of which the people have been conscious, it has built itself a church. This condition, lamentable as it is from the point of view of progress, is in static respects an excellent thing for the country, for it has intensified the social consciousness of the people assembling with those of their own class for the worship of God.

The state of social life which is thus so easily explained, in which the church is an expression of the social cleavage of the people, is from the point of view of progress lamentable. Social life in the country is divided by the very institutions which express its idealism. Country communities are split up in so far as the church can register their cleavage into little groups whose only significance is some doctrine now forgotten, or some racial origin now little regarded. The churches in the country are far too many in number. They become the vehicle of expressing grudges, resentments, narrow and mean social feelings and the facility of division among them makes them the exponent of all the unworthy and retrograde forces in social life.



The story of this overchurching of the country has been so often told that it need not here be repeated. Examples like the town in Pennsylvania, in which within a four miles' drive of a given point in the open country are twenty-four country churches, are numerous in all parts of the country, though this particular instance is the limit. I do not know a worse one. In a Michigan group of villages, the whole population of which is seventeen hundred, there are fifteen country churches in which thirteen resident ministers are at work. The tendency of these churches is to keep the towns divided, mean-spirited and socially trivial. Among all religious people the ideal of union and federation is growing. Nothing will be more difficult than the accomplishing of this federation, but there is no hope for the country without it. The same spirit will result in co-operative organizations of the farmers and in the centralizing of the schools, but even when these two great reforms have been effected, it will still be necessary for the churches to work out their own problem of federation.

Social life among all these churches is in a certain sort general, but it is thoroughly commercialized. The providing of sociables, oyster suppers, church dinners and occasional lecture courses is a function in which the churches quite generally lead. The motives for doing this are identical with the motives of the lodges in the small towns, which also provide some commercialized social life. It is the motive of making money for the organization. The price mark is on everything connected with these fairs and sales and suppers, and at this point the churches are restless. The men of the churches are dissatisfied with the bad business done by the organizations which provide social life so adulterated. Most of these are women's organizations.

It is to be said, however, that in communities where so few meeting places are provided by any one, these social enterprises of the women of the country churches have great value. The fact that they are commercialized does not discredit them wholly. There is a general tendency to explore the possibilities of recreation as an ethical utility, and somewhat tamely the churches are attempting that which the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations are doing with determination and assurance, namely, the harnessing of the play spirit that it may do the moral work of the community. If the sociables, fairs, sales and suppers by



which country churches pay a part of their expenses could be put upon a self-respecting basis, and if the system could be greatly extended so as to render a service adequate to the needs of the community, not merely to the needs of the churches, it would have extraordinary value, for what is needed in the country is the development of normal social life under the supervision of the church and the school. These are the two responsible institutions for building up the social structure of country life.

The home should hardly be called an institution. Its processes are instinctive rather than intellectual, especially in the country. The rural household is founded in sentiment. Its life is surrounded with reserve and its integrity is sternly guarded by the strong individualism and independence of country people. The rural household is the fortress and the citadel of American self-respect, and it is therefore almost impossible to affect with any direct influences the good or ill of the country home. Only through the church and the school can influences be made to reach the rural household through the slow course of years, and by the devoted service of teachers and ministers.

But it must be clearly understood that economic processes have undermined the traditional country home. We still hear a good deal of loose and sentimental idealization of the country home, but country people know well that the old-fashioned rural household has disappeared. The tendency of the farmers to retire to the towns, which in the great agricultural states has removed one-half of the land owners from the open country, has done much to break up the country home, because a part of the rural household was its possession of a warm, neighborly atmosphere. The departure of the young men and women to seek their fortune in the city, on the railroad or in the factory towns has dissolved the rural household. The very process which in the city and factory populations is compacting the home is at work in the country dissolving the home. The picture at the World's Fair in Chicago in 1893, "Breaking Home Ties," was a classical artistic expression of this lamentable and pitiful process. So far in the open country there has been no economic reconstruction on which the household can be built. Without this reconstruction the rural household, which is the center of social life in the country, cannot be firmly built. Its present weakness is the truest expression of the dilapida-



tion, confusion and weakness of social life in the country. The church and the school in the country should be reconstructed for the purpose of restoring a normal social life, and the test of the success of this process shall be the building of a new country home in which men shall dwell at peace, permanently contented, the son succeeding his father, the daughter contented to remain for her lifetime in the country community. It is useless to commend educational, religious or merely social changes for the repair of rural social life. The fundamental change must be economic, and the farmer must learn by better educational methods how to produce from the land a great abundance, in order that there may be a larger profit for himself and cheaper prices in the city. This scientific agriculture is necessary also for conserving the fertility of the soil.

But scientific agriculture is not teaching the farmer to get himself a better profit. To this end co-operation among farmers is necessary. Certain measures are necessary also that look to the elimination of the middleman so far as possible. The parcels post, the providing of public market places in the larger towns and smaller cities are just as necessary as scientific farming and co-operative organization of farmers. By this means a satisfactory income will in time be secured by the farmer, and when farmers see that their income will be proportionately increased along with the increase of the total product from the land, then the farming population will take courage to practice the biddings of the agricultural scientist.

Social life thus anchored in a secure, profitable and permanent agriculture may be built to this end around the existing institutions in the country, the church and the school. Generally, the schools should be consolidated and centralized so far as possible in the open country. How far this centralizing of country life will be done in the towns and villages one cannot at present say, but it is for the good of the farmer generally that the centralization of the schools in the country be independent of town and village domination. It is important to make clear that the centralizing of schools will not itself follow from economic welfare. It must be done by the school men and is a task to be accomplished by itself.

Another task which will not come automatically as a part of



rural welfare is the reconstruction of the country church. This again is a task for the church men of all denominations. When the church and the school in the country, assisted by the grange, the rural Young Men's Christian Association and other institutions whose influence is great in those territories in which they are organized, have come to their best, then rural social life can be restored to its genial and kindly and humane aspects. But without this thorough-going reconstruction country life will continue to deteriorate so far as our present knowledge goes.



## THE RURAL CHURCH

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Social organizations which maintain religious worship and thereby purpose to embody and develop the religious and moral life of communities having not more than 2,500 inhabitants, may be called country or rural churches. Churches in the open country located in the most rural of districts where there are no villages belong to this class. Such are chapel churches by the cross roads, and those in agricultural hamlets and in villages and towns which have small manufactures, high schools, the beginnings of wealth and a degree of social selection. It is becoming less true that a church must be made up of farmers in order to belong to the country church class. More and more people employed in cities are seeking country homes and the open-hearted cordiality of rural worship. On the other hand, well-to-do rural people are bringing their church life to conform to the town or urban type. Many country churches are made up exclusively of people who work in factories, mines and quarries, or who engage in commercial pursuits. In general, we may say that country churches are those in communities where rural conditions persist and dominate.

The first decade of the present century has witnessed a rapid increase of attention to the functions and problems of the country church. In all ages the evangelists of religion have been the pioneers, not only of religious teachings in newly settled territories, but they have been the pioneers of organization for all forms of social work. The increase of attention to organized religion among rural people is not only a recognition of the great power and importance which the institutions of religion have attained, but it shows a deepening sense of need that we make sure that the country church shall not lose her place and leadership in the social advance of modern civilization as a whole. What are the marks of progress in the field of the country church?



## I

We are approaching the time when it may be said that we have a literature on the subject of the country church. The following books have been written which, if taken together, give one a view of the present situation from the literary standpoint.

The leading book thus far upon the religious phase of the country church problem is "The Country Town," by Rev. Wilber L. Anderson (Baker & Taylor Co., New York, 1906). Kenyon L. Butterfield's "The Country Church and the Rural Problem" (University of Chicago Press, 1911) is a most helpful and inspiring treatment of important phases of the question. "The Church of the Open Country," by Warren H. Wilson, Ph.D. (Missionary Education Movement, New York, 1911) as a textbook for use in classes of young people, will prove most helpful. "The Day of the Country Church," by Rev. J. O. Ashenhurst (Funk & Wagnalls Co., New York, 1910). "Rural Christendom," by Charles Roads, D.D. (American Sunday School Union, Philadelphia, 1909), and "Institutional Work for the Country Church," by Rev. Charles E. Hayward (Free Press Association, Burlington, Vt., 1900) are the three books which come nearest to setting forth the country church problem from a distinctively church point of view. No country church book-shelf would be complete without three biographical books of rare merit. They are Professor E. S. Tipple's "Some Famous Country Parishes" (Eaton & Mains, New York, 1911), Rev. A. F. Beard's "The Story of John Frederic Oberlin" (Pilgrim Press, Boston, 1909), and the "Letters and Memories of Charles Kingsley," by Fannie E. Kingsley (J. D. Morris, Publisher, Philadelphia).

Other books which have decided value in this field are "Chapters in Rural Progress," by Kenyon L. Butterfield (University of Chicago Press, 1908); "The Rural Life Problem of the United States," by Sir Horace Plunkett (Macmillan Co., New York, 1911); "The State and the Farmer," by L. H. Bailey (Macmillan Co., New York, 1908); "Quaker Hill, A Sociological Study," by Warren H. Wilson (156 Fifth Avenue, New York, 1907); "The Country Life Movement," by L. H. Bailey (Macmillan Co., New York, 1911); "Rural Versus Urban," by John W. Bookwalter (Knickerbocker Press, New York, 1910) and "The Vision of New Clairvaux," by Edward Pearson Pressey (Sherman, French & Co., Boston, 1909).



The fourth volume of the "Cyclopedia of American Agriculture" (Macmillan Co., New York, 1909), which embodies the sociological portion of that monumental work, has not yet had its full use by those interested in promoting the interests of the country church.

The most complete country church bibliography thus far published is "Writings on Practical Country Church Problems" in the *Homiletic Review* for August, 1909 (Funk & Wagnalls Co., New York, 30c); a more recent list is "A Select Bibliography on the Country Church," (*Gospel of the Kingdom*, November, 1910, Bible House, New York, 5c). "A Selected Bibliography on the Country Church Problem," which is an annotated list of writings prepared by a committee of The New England Country Church Association (Prof. H. K. Rowe, Newton Centre, Mass.), is a third valuable help to the student of the question.

## II

A beginning has been made in the application of the scientific method to the study of rural religious conditions and problems. It may be stated as a rule that the rural problem approaches solution, from one standpoint at least, only in so far as use is made of the scientific method.

In this connection, recognition must be given to the invaluable services of Rev. Henry Fairbanks, Ph.D., of Vermont, who, in 1886, made reports of first-hand investigations in his native state which surpass in value the mere house-to-house canvass and statistical reports given in denominational year books. In fact no reports of investigations thus far made are more interesting than these.<sup>1</sup>

Samuel W. Dike, LL.D., of Massachusetts, by a series of articles published in the *Andover Review* on the religious problems of country townships did a piece of practical sociological work which has not yet been surpassed.<sup>2</sup> Rollin Lynde Hartt and President William DeWitt Hyde of Bowdoin College, by their writings and practical interest gave great encouragement to the movement toward an intelligent analysis of the causes of rural decline and the means of wholesome living in the face of deplorable odds due to the necessity of meeting new conditions.

<sup>1</sup> Two pamphlets, "The Needs of the Rural Districts" and "The Problem of the Evangelization of Vermont," may be secured by writing to Dr. Fairbanks, at St. Johnsbury, Vt.

<sup>2</sup> See *Andover Review*, August, 1884, January, June and September, 1885, for this valuable series.



We are able to-day to report some advance upon these early New England beginnings. The Department of Economics and Sociology of the Carnegie Institution at Washington, in 1906, reported some valuable facts and conclusions from rural social studies<sup>3</sup>. The Country Life Commission appointed by President Theodore Roosevelt in the last year of his administration did work which marked an epoch in rural interest.

In 1909, an investigation was made of overlooking and overlapping among the churches of Colorado. This was one of the first of the investigations made by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America in its capacity as a central congress for the promotion of social and religious work by more than thirty leading Christian denominations.<sup>4</sup>

The Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, by studies made under the auspices of its Department of Church and Country Life is making a leading contribution to the scientific observation of life in the open country. Though these investigations are made under church auspices they bear the economic point of view. The Federation of Churches of Wisconsin, in 1910, reported the beginnings of one of the leading country church investigations yet to be made.<sup>5</sup>

### III

The third mark of progress in the field of the country church is found in an increasing number of active organizations and associations, the purpose of which is to help the church to its vital place in rural community welfare. One of the first of these is the New England Country Church Association of which Professor T. N. Carver of Harvard University, is president. It holds annual gatherings for conference and free expression of opinion and conviction in regard to the best means of meeting country church problems.

The County Work Department of the Young Men's Christian Association, which has about seventy-five international, state and county secretaries employed and equipped at an annual expense of about \$350,000, is working by various means, in co-operation with the churches as far as possible, to discover, train and enlist

<sup>3</sup> "The Country Church and Its Social Problem," in *The Outlook*, August 18, 1906.

<sup>4</sup> "Co-operative Advance in Home Missions," Federal Council, 215 Fourth Ave., New York.

<sup>5</sup> H. A. Miner, Madison, Wisconsin.



leadership for active social work in rural counties and districts. *Rural Manhood*, the publication of this association (124 East 28th Street, New York), is proving of great service to many rural workers.

Pennsylvania Rural Progress Association (Mrs. E. E. Powers, Pennsdale, Pa., Secretary) and the Illinois Federation of Country Life Progress (Miss Mabel Carney, Normal, Illinois, Secretary) as well as the Laymen's Christian Federation of Maine, are private associations which seek the co-operation of the churches with the schools, the Grange and other organizations in rural community building. These and other similar societies are exerting a leadership of great service in showing the possibilities of co-ordination and co-operation in which the country church should take a large part.

There are several inter-church federations of states which are co-ordinating the work of rural churches, remedying overlooking and overlapping and educating the clergy to the sociological point of view in their service. The problem of adequate support of country ministers is also being considered by some of these. The leading of these are the following:

The Massachusetts Federation of Churches, under the leadership of Rev. E. Tallamage Root (53 Mt. Vernon St., Boston Mass.) which publishes the periodical *Facts and Factors* and is making social surveys of typical rural communities. The Federation of Churches of Wisconsin of which Rev. H. A. Miner, of Madison, Wisconsin, has been the chief promoter, and the Nebraska Federation of Churches with Rev. P. F. Wigton, of Elgin, as executive secretary, are the leaders of this work in the Central West. Maine, Vermont, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, West Virginia, Illinois, North Dakota, South Dakota, Colorado, California, Washington and other states are rapidly developing their work under strong executive committees who are choosing secretaries for the promotion of their service. On a comprehensive scale the Home Missions Council and the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, are exerting force, hitherto unknown in the whole history of Missions toward the effective re-direction and stimulation of the more than 2,000 district superintendents, missionary bishops, conference secretaries, convention missionaries and 70,000 or more country pastors who are working in various



parts of the United States, all directly associated under the leadership of these inclusive movements.

The Neglected Field's Campaign of the Home Missions Council, in twelve or more states in the Home Missionary Territory of the Northwest taken by itself is an effort of infinite promise.

There are some distinctive church associations which are getting at the problem more directly. It is a decided advance when the churches as such recognize and utilize their capacity as the most effective of associations. The Department of Church and Country Life of the Board of Home Missions of the Presbyterian Church has already been mentioned. Rev. Warren H. Wilson, Ph.D., 156 Fifth Avenue, New York City, is its superintendent.

Mr. E. L. Shuey, of Dayton, Ohio, is chairman of the Committee on Country Churches of the United Brethren Conferences of his district. The Committee on the Study of the Rural Church Problem of the Pacific coast, of which Rev. A. E. King, North Yakima, Washington, is chairman; the Committee on Rural Life of the Oklahoma Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, of which Rev. B. C. Wolf, of Kildare, Oklahoma, is president; the Committee on Rural Conditions of the Baptist State Conventions of New York, of which Rev. R. A. Vose, of Owego, New York, is chairman; the Country Church Commission of Cleveland District, East Ohio Conference with Rev. N. W. Stroup, of Cleveland as president; the Committee on Rural Churches of the United Presbyterian Church, of which Henry Wallace, LL.D., of Des Moines, Iowa, is president, and Rev. J. O. Ashenhurst, of Pemberville, Ohio, is secretary, and the Bureau of Field Work in Christian Sociology of Drew Theological Seminary, of which Professor Edwin L. Earp, Ph.D., of Madison, New Jersey, is director, are among these organizations.

#### IV

The fourth mark of progress is indicated by the change of emphasis in recent work for country betterment. It is not considered that the greatest leader in the rural movement is the man whose secretarial position is most lofty or territory most extended. Instead, the greatest leader is the person who has laid the deepest foundation and built up the best rural life in particular parishes. The emphasis is rapidly being placed upon the local pastor, church



and geographical unit. The publication of the story of John Frederick Oberlin has had an excellent influence in this direction.

Articles like "A Study in Local Church Federation" in the *Methodist Review*, for July, 1910 (150 Fifth Ave., New York, 40c); "How a Country Church Found Itself" in *World's Work* for August, 1911 (Garden City, N. Y., 25c) and "Modern Methods of Church Work," by the Missionary Education Movement (156 Fifth Avenue, New York), indicate the growing prevalence of this emphasis.

The Home Missions Council has undertaken to ascertain facts concerning every rural and country neighborhood in the United States. Rural life as a whole cannot rise higher than its most needy though smallest social unit. "A Social Survey for Rural Communities," a social analysis and manual for the study of even the smallest of social units, as well as outline of possible activities for the growth and development of communities as published by the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ (215 Fourth Avenue, New York) further emphasizes this wholesome tendency.

The two leading practical questions which have arisen in the country life movement as it relates to the church are, first, what is a normal program for the country church, and second, how shall an adequate working analysis of a rural or country community be made from the standpoint of the church. The latter question is answered by, "A Social Survey," which has just been mentioned. The first question is answered by the following outline. Both of these show the place from whence the movement as a whole is now anxiously looking for results. The Agricultural College, the Grange and the country school are more awake to the present rural situation than is the Home Missionary Society; the Missionary Society more active than the theological seminary; and the seminary more advanced than is the country church itself. The next ten years will see a decided reaction in behalf of a changed rural life made up of a countless number of highly developed and alive country churches and parishes.

The following program indicates the steps to be taken by the country church in its community service:

1. *Individuality*.—Every person has a religious and moral faculty. Likewise, every country community needs and should have the church. The church being the organ or faculty of the com-



munity for the spiritual life, there can be no true community life without the presence of the church and its ministries. It is the business of each community, in co-operation with the church at large, to provide the equipment to facilitate the expression and growth of the religious life of the community. This equipment is to include an energetic minister for the administration of the church, the preaching of the gospel and such leadership in community life as shall secure its highest spiritual welfare. In determining its relationship to the resources and problems of the community, the church may need the assistance of a scientific survey of its field.

2. *Service*—Churches' Work.—The country church, in common with all other churches, being an institution for realizing the moral and religious welfare and betterment of society, in the systematic exercise of its functions, provides for pastoral visitation, evangelism, temperance and other moral reforms, religious education and missions.

3. *Fellowship*—Churches Work Together.—Where country churches are related geographically to other churches in the same community, these churches in maintaining their internal integrity will mutually practice some method of inter-church unity whereby the comity, the inter-church association, the maximum service federation, or the one-minister federation will be realized, or they will, if the spiritual interests of the community need it, voluntarily proceed to form a single comprehensive church.

4. *Association*—Churches Working Together Co-operate.—Country churches in proportion to their inherent capacity to maintain a mutually helpful community relationship will be in vital and co-operative touch with the necessary social interests, movements and institutions in the community. Thus will be realized what is commonly known as the federation of rural social forces. By this means the church will inspire or promote when necessary: (a) The improvement of schools and their consolidation where needed; (b) Co-operation with the Grange and all movements looking toward better farming; (c) Needed recreations; (d) Public health and better living conditions. The fundamental social institutions thus federated will be able to eliminate the associations which unnecessarily exhaust the community resources.

5. *Substitution*—Churches Working Together Socially Substitute.—In instances where the structural and essential institutions



and agencies of a community are not fulfilling their functions, and cannot by direct personal means be stimulated to accomplish them, the church may temporarily and in behalf of needy classes, such as the marginal people, perform these functions by so-called institutional agencies.

6. *Unity of Solidarity.*—The Church is the religious and moral aspect of the whole community. We should keep to the few primary social institutions, bringing each to fulfill its function for the entire community rather than to multiply those which can serve only its unrelated parts. Every part of community life should be vitally related to every other part. The country church, when its internal, federal and community relations are normally realized and local solidarity is attained, will do its part in maintaining the vital equilibrium of all helpful community factors.

7. *Extension.*—The country church is vitally related to the church and society everywhere. In the face of needs and problems which cannot be met from local resources, the church may supplement its own strength by co-operation with non-resident forces. It is often advisable for the local church to secure the aid of specialists in the solution of difficult problems.



## RURAL WORK OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

BY ALBERT E. ROBERTS AND HENRY ISRAEL,  
Secretaries of the International Committee of Rural Young Men's  
Christian Associations.

The county work, or rural department of the Young Men's Christian Association seeks to unite in a town, village, rural community, or in the open country the vital forces of young manhood for self improvement, physically, socially, mentally, and spiritually, and to give expression to these resources in community life for the betterment of others.

*The Field.*—It considers its legitimate field to include all communities that are too small to maintain the city type of Young Men's Christian Association work, generally conceded to include towns of four thousand and under. Experience has proven that its best work is done, however, in communities in which the rural environment dominates the community ideals. It therefore is a movement which must be determined from the standpoint of qualitative rather than quantitative values. There are 45,000 such communities in the United States and Canada with a combined population of boys and young men of over 12,000,000, thus including over sixty per cent of the boyhood and young manhood in this field. There are 2,000 counties considered organizable in the United States and 500 in Canada on the present basis of organization and type of work.

*Its Beginnings.*—The rapid development of the general Young Men's Christian Association movement, which addressed itself principally to the young men and boys of the cities, precipitated a general demand for work in small towns and country districts; but no constructive program was conceived until 1872 when the Association pioneer, Robert Weidensall, organized the first rural Young Men's Christian Association, in DuPage township, Will County, Illinois. In 1873 the supervisory aspect of the rural work was demonstrated in the voluntary supervision undertaken by a business man in Mason County, Illinois, who encouraged and supervised the



work in seven or eight small communities, which gave rise to the possibilities of what became known as the "County Work" with an employed secretary in charge. It was at this time that the experimentation with small town work under county-wide supervision began, but not until 1906 was it sufficiently developed to be officially recognized as a department of the International Committee.

*County Work For County-Wide Co-operation.*—The term "county work" is applied to this movement because the county affords a ready geographical unit for constructive work. Counties have distinctive traditions of their own, social elements, and existing organizations of a county-wide character. As the result of repeated failures in individual communities apart from other communities, a county-wide organization, commanding the combined resources of men and money within a county, made possible in community life that which could not have been accomplished independently.

*Efficiency in Organization.*—There are two factors that enter into this plan so essential to success—volunteer effort and expert supervision. The voluntary organization, the county committee, consisting of from fifteen to twenty prominent business and professional men and successful farmers, constitute the administrative unit and clearing house for policies and programs for the county-wide activities as well as for individual communities. These county committeemen are selected with great care, primarily meeting one of two qualifications: to be able to command resources of their own to promote this work for a period of years, or to possess such influence as to command the resources of others, both in time and money. They all must stand for the best things in community life, be vitally related to the church, to the school and other agencies that make for community progress. They constitute a voluntary body not unlike the faculty of a university at one time, or the health board of the county in another instance, as the clearing house for a religious campaign at another time, as a voluntary body of commissioners to advance the specific interests of a county, and in no uncertain degree measure out their best judgment frequently along the lines of advancing the agricultural or economic interests. Therefore, the county committee assigns these various aspects of its work to sub-committees, each of which renders its reports at the quarterly meeting of the county committee which works in close



contact with the employed secretary and trained experts. The county committee is responsible for a budget varying from \$2,000 to \$6,000 annually secured by voluntary contributions, which enables it to employ a secretary who is a trained expert as their executive officer. Thus the work is correlated and co-ordinated and a central clearing house is established through which any community and every community may find help and counsel in promoting internal welfare. In many instances the county committee has thus saved a community from expensive and painful experiments that have been previously proven impracticable.

*The County Secretary.*—"He is usually the fittest type of the college man, often not only a college graduate, but also with some special training. He is a man who loves country life and believes in the country and has great faith in the immediate future of the rural districts. The county secretaryship is fast being supplemented with agricultural college graduates. He is usually a man of large capacity for leadership, with a broad knowledge of human nature and a fine friendliness as well as an earnest Christian purpose and a great longing to help country boys and young men to well developed Christian manhood."

He is in a real sense a community builder. As he is employed by a voluntary organization, his services and his largest contribution to a county will be in reproducing his expert knowledge and experience in volunteer service. Therefore, his primary task is to discover, enlist, train, and utilize leadership. He is also a servant. Pastors, Sunday School superintendents and teachers, public school superintendents and day school teachers, fathers and mothers, granges, farmers' clubs and institutes, women's clubs, and many other organizations seek his co-operation and advice. In the individual community, having discovered leaders and set them to work, he executes the plans and policies adopted by the county committee through volunteer leadership. His relationship is with the few men who are the leaders rather than with the masses. In addition to the county secretaries some of the older and larger counties are employing assistant secretaries, physical directors, boys' work directors, etc. There are now fifty such secretaries in forty-nine organized counties.

*The Basis of Operation.*—County work is not an attempt to build up a new organization in country communities. It recognizes



as the primary institutions of the community the home, the school, and the church. Many other supplemental organizations are doing splendid work, but the aforementioned are recognized as fundamental. It is also a fact that though these are the primary institutions, they are in many cases functioning inadequately, or have ceased to perform their function entirely. Again, in the supplementary organizations which are found in country life many are overlapping and even working at cross purposes. There seems to be no well defined or unified policy. Furnishing a common platform upon which the various interests of the people will find expression and where these interests can come together in a democratic spirit is the unifying task of the county work in the organized counties. It stands for the elimination of waste, for the interpretation of real needs after careful surveys have been made, for the assumption of specific tasks by specific individuals and communities. It gives itself to the awakening of a social consciousness, a getting together; it seeks to supplement and not to supplant. If it can persuade a virile type of a man to teach a class of boys in a Sunday School, or a leader to supervise the play and athletics of a school, or a farmer to give his boy a man's chance, it has made a contribution to the community life, and its leaders are as well satisfied as they would be if a new organization were formed.

*Some Established Principles.*—They may be briefly given as follows:

A task for every man and a man for every task.

A recognition of the resident forces as the redemptive forces.

The approach to the rural problem a community approach.

The recognition of the inherent value of country life in and for itself.

The maximum development of constructive forces in community life.

Trained leadership for community enterprises.

Deliverance from the enervating paternalism of the city.

To stem the tide which sweeps toward the city.

Adequate preparation and appreciation for the problems of the city by those who must leave the environs of country life.

Better health and sanitation in farm homes and country communities.

A redirected educational system which will fit for life in the country.



A more scientific type of crop production and farm administration as essential to greater satisfaction in rural life.

A wholesome development of the recreative life.

For the increased power of the church.

Co-operation rather than competition.

A standardizing of operation. Membership is based upon what is given in service rather than what is secured in privileges. And finally a dominance of Christian ideals in the character of the manhood and boyhood of the country.

*The County-wide Aspects.*—Two, three, and four months and sometimes more time is given to a careful sociological survey, which is made by an expert before any attempt is made to organize a county, revealing the real needs for work in the county. Upon the results of these surveys a comprehensive policy for a period of years is outlined. This involves co-operation with experts from agricultural colleges, extension departments of universities, not to do things *for* the people, but *with* them. Other agencies also co-operate in county-wide activities, as in boys' and men's summer camps, inter-county relay races, play festivals and athletic meets, corn-growing contests, short term courses in agriculture. Social service at the county and state fairs is finding expression in rest tents, day nurseries, first aid hospitals, and in many of the county fairs the management and conduct of the athletics has been taken out of the hands of unscrupulous professionals and turned over to the Association leaders, with most gratifying results.

*Community Interests Conserved.*—No real progress in community life can be made with any degree of permanence without commensurate progress of its material wellbeing, and in the rural communities particularly the natural resources play an important part in demonstrations showing the possibilities of soil production. This is shown in the corn-growing, poultry-raising, and fruit-growing contests, in the horticultural classes and demonstrations, in potato-raising, in dairying, reforestation, etc. For this work it is necessary to secure the help of experts at experiment stations and agricultural colleges, which always comes more than enthusiastically. One-day courses are set up in various communities. The county secretary accompanies the experts from community to community. In some of the regularly organized counties as many as fourteen and sixteen rural centers are organized. This forms a ready approach



to a discussion and a solution of the economic problems before the younger generation.

*Supplementary Education.*—The boy in the country needs to have his school education supplemented by various other educational activities. A more intimate knowledge of the natural sciences, practical rather than academic, is imparted through simple talks on astronomy, biology, botany, zoology, geology, and on mathematical subjects related to the farm and to the home. This training in practical mathematics covers cost, accounting, measurements of garden plots, of the height of trees, and other necessary practice in mathematics. An extensive variety of "Practical Talks" with demonstrations is also conducted.

*Social Aspects.*—Country-life experts are unanimously agreed that what the country needs is social life. The inherent organization germ of the Young Men's Christian Association is social. It takes isolated communities and brings them together under the county work plan; it brings isolated individuals together in groups; it brings communities together in play, in inter-community debates, in inter-community agricultural contests, and in inter-community church movements. It eliminates the tendency to social stratification or the formation of cliques, which result naturally from the lack of social direction. A many-sided program of social activities is carried out involving neighborhoods, various homes and families, boys and girls.

It should be said that while the Association is addressing itself to the boy and young man in the country, its work naturally includes the girls and young women, particularly in social activities. It also emphasizes the need of a harmonious and closely unified community social life.

*Civic Aspects.*—The great need of an agrarian representation in our government affairs is apparent. We are still dominated by urban aggression, and the indifference and lack of intimate knowledge of governmental affairs as they relate themselves to rural interests is largely responsible for this condition. The better acquaintanceship of the 25,000 young men and boys in organized rural Associations with the members of their state legislatures and with congressional representatives who are invited to address them upon matters of vital current interest, will do much to bring about an appreciation of their civic rights. The conduct of town meetings in



which bills are introduced and discussed, involving their own community needs, the value of telephone franchises, of the good roads movement, the parcels post, the rural free delivery, postal savings bank, problems of the tariff as it affects the farmer, these are all subjects to be discussed in the various groups of the young men and boys.

*Rural Recreation.*—Rural recreation is another great factor in achieving a healthy consummation of content and normal living. Here the boy needs a normal physical expression, again socialized, particularly in the games, such as baseball, or in relay races, where one runner depends upon the other for the success of the team. This team work will do much to bring about a neighborly spirit of co-operation and neutralize individualistic tendencies. Community play days and community carnivals in which every boy and girl, man and woman takes part have been held. In one instance ninety per cent of the entire community turned out to spend the day together, the girls in their particular games, the boys in baseball and out-door basketball, the smaller children enjoying sand-boxes and children's games. These are known as the great community play carnivals.

Under this head must also be considered the conservation of rural health. Sanitation, domestic and community, hygiene, etc., are taken into consideration; practical talks and illustrated lectures are given; the rural school teacher is encouraged and aided in organizing plays and games during the recess periods; Sunday Schools are brought together in athletic leagues; and many other similar efforts afford the rare opportunity to the county secretary in some genuine social engineering.

*The Home.*—The whole question of the home is vitally involved in rural community progress, which implies a more intimate knowledge of the needs of the home and the conditions that must be met before home life can be made satisfactory. Among the results of this better knowledge will be the further invention and introduction of labor-saving devices. The spirit of the home will be conserved by the development of a closer relation between parents and children and children and parents, and by the awakening in the minds of the parents of a need for boy-mindedness and girl-mindedness. Many parents' meetings are held where emphasis is being laid upon the comradeship and friendship of parents and their children, as



well as the need of inspiring boys and girls to a greater interest in the arrangement of the home and in conserving its spirit and orderliness. The important matter of sex hygiene is not overlooked in this domestic educational campaign.

*Religion in the Country.*—Real progress in country life cannot be made without the great spiritual forces, and therefore the Young Men's Christian Association puts first and foremost the spiritual motive in everything. It holds out no selfish incentive to those who would join in its efforts. The organization is based upon the getting together to do something for the community. Under the stimulating force in a well-trained and vigorous personality, the country boy is enabled to overcome conditions in which he finds himself, and in the overcoming develops his best qualities into a masterful manhood. The starting of Bible study classes, co-operation with Sunday Schools to bring the boy into a realization of a virile religious life and meetings in isolated neighborhoods by young men are some of the religious activities.

Much is being said these days about federation of the rural church, but there is an aspect of federation about which very little is being said. This is the bringing together of community forces, boys and young men, regardless of denominational lines, and the working together for a community program involving the entire realm of economics, education, social life, civics, recreation, the home, and the spiritual forces.

*Conserved by State and International Organizations.*—Twenty-two state and provincial committees of the United States and Canada have separate sub-committees on rural work and employ experts who maintain direct relationships to the county secretaries and county committees and who with their committees constitute a clearing house for the state. In similar lines the International Committee through its sub-committee on rural work employs five experts who are related to the various state departments and provincial departments of the United States and Canada, where a clearing house is maintained from a national standpoint. It is to this department that already requests have been sent from Great Britain, India, Japan, and other nations that are desirous of having the county work movement of the Young Men's Christian Association. The official organ of the movement, "Rural Manhood," is published by this committee.



A movement which commands the confidence of business men to the extent of a quarter of a million dollars a year at the present time, which enlists 2,000 leaders and committeemen and which reaches in its activities more than 25,000 young men and boys in 500 communities with 62 trained experts and 35 years of experience, is glad to share in a small degree at least in the present onward movement for country-life progress.



## THE COUNTRY SCHOOL

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The discussions elsewhere in this book dealing with changes in rural population, industries and life in general, make clear to the reader that American rural life has for some time been in a state of transition. The old pioneer farmer is passing away with the last of the cheap lands, and the dawn of a new era is at hand. A gradual rehabilitation is coming to life in rural districts—a life which, in many sections of our country, had become sapped of its best social satisfactions, due to the industrial call of the city and the beckoning of the last new frontier. Those who have been exploiting the soil must give way before the husbandman farmer. He is soon to possess the land. When this comes to pass, the desertion of the rural community by the people who should furnish it both intelligence and vigorous life will end.

The factors entering into the socialization of the new rural life are many. But it is safe to say that none of these is more important than the rural school. For it is school education, after all, that must furnish the leadership so essential to the solution of the rural life movement. Without strong men and women imbued with the spirit of masterful action, and thoroughly prepared for their work in the redirected rural schools, there can be no satisfactory adjustment of rural life. Let no one be misled in this matter. The present propagandist movement, directed by educators and social philosophers speaking from the rostrum in college and university, can but direct the attention of the country folk to their needs and suggest present remedies; but the ultimate readjustment will come at the hands of the new generation of scientific farmers. Here is seen the great task of the American rural school.

Any form of education, to be effective, must reflect the daily life and interests of the community employing it. With us, agriculture is the chief primary industry; consequently our rural education must be agricultural in nature. By this is meant vastly more



than the study of agriculture as a school subject. The new school must give expression to at least two things: (1) Good, scientific farming, rendering ample returns for the labor expended; and (2) a rural social life satisfactory to those living it. This means, briefly, that farming as an occupation must be made at least as profitable as an equal investment would be in the city, or else it will be difficult to keep the best productive population on the farms. But mere commensurate returns on the money invested cannot hold them there. Daily life in the country must first be made more humanly interesting and wholesome. So long as this life is lacking in ordinary social satisfactions, people will go where they can get them. The rural school must aim to make better farmers and better helpmeets for these farmers, must make the occupation more remunerative, and the whole life more worth living and free from city domination.

There was a time when all our schools, town and country alike, had many more things in common than now. This was before steam and electric power gave us the great machine age with its greatly specialized city life. The first rural teacher was city-bred and city-trained, had city ways and sympathies, and brought with him to the country, a city course of study. But in the early days this was of little consequence; since even city life, so called then, was provincial in nature, in many ways scarcely more than an overgrown rural life. But times have changed. Our towns have become mighty centers of commerce and manufacture. The needs of city life have found expression in a course of study preparing children for the varied activities there, and all has gone well with the city. But what about the rural schools? They have gone right on, down to the opening of the present century, using a course of study formulated for children with city motives, with the natural result that vast numbers of farm boys and girls have been trained away from the country instead of for it.

The specific charge against the rural school is this: (1) It has drawn too much of its substance from sources foreign to rural needs; and (2) it has failed in other ways to keep pace with the demands of our rapidly developing agricultural life. The school has had its face towards the city. Much more, it has long been almost at a standstill. Says Mr. Roosevelt's Commission on Country Life: "The schools are held largely responsible for ineffective farming,



lack of ideals, and the drift to town. This is not because the rural schools, as a whole, are declining, but because they are in a state of arrested development and have not yet put themselves in consonance with all the recently changed conditions of life." The great task is to put the school in harmony with the needs, and time and place of present-day life.

Before the rural school can become rooted to the soil as the chief agency in this social-economic reconstruction, several important changes must be brought about. Chief among these may be named: (1) A thorough redirection of the subject-matter taught in the schools; (2) a general reorganization of the entire working staff of administrators, supervisors and instructors; and (3) the re-building, at liberal cost, of the entire school plant.

(1) Of first concern is the subject-matter taught in the school. The universal elements are naturally the same whether given in the country or the city.<sup>1</sup> In locality interests only is there great divergence. Country children are reared in their own peculiar environment. They find their consuming interests in field and meadow, in orchard and garden, and if led by teachers sufficiently prepared in rural education, will early grow up in love with nature for its own sake, as also with the farm and farm home, there to become content to live out their free and independent and wholesome lives.

Some of the subjects which have long held place in the traditional farm-school curriculum are fast yielding this place, having failed to express the activities and needs of the community. Or, at least, such subjects are now receiving an altered emphasis. New subjects of vital importance to rural progress are finding prominent places in the new course of study. Thus, nature study, elementary agriculture, manual training and domestic science, farm accounting, physical education, etc., are beginning to play an important part in the life of many progressive schools. Nature study must be considered a substantial background for the whole scheme of farm education. Agriculture develops as a concrete expression of the practical side of farm life. Manual training and domestic science teach an added dignity in household tasks, making these less arduous and giving a new and broader outlook on life.

<sup>1</sup>The several paragraphs dealing with the curriculum are reproduced in substance from a chapter on *The Community and the Curriculum*, prepared by the author for a book entitled *Educational Backgrounds in Rural and Village Communities*, under the editorship of Professor Joseph K. Hart, of the University of Washington.



In the main, however, the process of redirection is not so much one of adding new subjects to the curriculum as of putting a new leaven into the old essentials. Nature study, for example, may be taught at odd moments in an informal way from the first year to the time of beginning concrete agriculture, as a leaven in all the subjects. Lessons in literature and composition may very properly emphasize the beauties of nature in the farm environment. Geography and arithmetic, likewise, can make use of much that is near at hand and applicable to daily life. These schools are already teaching less of stocks and bonds, cube root and Troy weight, and more of dairy problems and rotation of farm crops, spraying mixtures and handy farm measures. When the average rural school shall have got the great vision and have redirected its work into these channels, the new educated leadership, spoken of above, will readily be realized.

(2) The rural schools as now commonly organized are wholly incapable of providing our farm population with the very vital subject matter indicated above. The units of organization are mostly too large or too small, thereby offering an inadequate basis for school administration. The latter is in the hands of untrained and generally incompetent school boards. Finally, the men and women that supervise and teach the schools lack, in large measure, the vision and preparation necessary to overcome this retarded state.

The units of organization commonly employed are, district, township and county.<sup>2</sup> Of these the district unit is the smallest and most democratic; but, unfortunately, it has passed its day of greatest usefulness. Organized as a necessity in colonial New England it was later carried by the pioneer settlers to the Middle West and West. This unit has proved too small to be entrusted with final legislation in matters of importance. Especially is this true where the taxing power is concerned. Local jealousy, parsimony and individual indifference have contributed much toward making the district unsatisfactory in actual practice. Under existing conditions it is quite possible for two or three individuals to dictate or manipulate the policy of the district. This is dangerous, to say the least, and explains in large measure why great sections of the country still cling to their thousands of poorly maintained, weak and wholly inadequate schools.

<sup>2</sup> See *The American Rural School*, Ch. II, The Macmillan Company.



There are several contributory causes for this gradual decadence of the district unit. The unrest in rural communities, with its exodus to town or to the western frontier, has done destructive work. To this should be added the pernicious custom of dividing and subdividing districts—still going on in the Middle West and West—already weak in the extreme, to the end of giving every ambitious farmer a schoolhouse near his own farmyard. Educational effort must from this time onward be exerted to combine these small units into areas large enough to maintain twentieth century schools. The day of the little red schoolhouse lies behind us.

The township (town) system of organization is rapidly displacing, or at least modifying, the small district in those sections of the country where the township is used for the administration of local government. In the South where the county is the basis of government, the same is used for educational purposes also. Where one board, elected from the area at large, controls all the schools, whether such unit be township or county, a more uniform standard of excellence and equality of school provision is sure to prevail. The county unit is believed by some to be too large for practical purposes. This may or may not be true. Certainly this policy is bringing excellent results in parts of the South where county organization has hastened consolidation of weak schools. Legislative and other aid should be invoked to hasten the day of transformation from the district unit to either the township or county or other large unit of organization. There cannot be a strong school nor much community spirit and enterprise before this occurs.

A great menace of the rural school is found in the general weakness and even incompetence of the school board. Very few country-bred persons have had adequate educational advantages to appreciate the needs of the schools. This becomes a further argument in favor of large units of organization; for, surely, the larger the area of the district the greater the chance of finding competent men. Under the circumstances many a board is composed of honest, well-meaning, but ignorant and, therefore, inefficient men, whose work is often further weakened by the addition of some aggressive, self-opinionated individual with an axe to grind.

If many of the best men in the community cannot be induced to serve on the school board, and this is a lamentable fact, the state should assist in every possible way those who are willing to



give their time to the community. Let them be trained for school service. We train teachers, why not also the men who hold the educational policy of the community in their hands? The monthly teachers' meetings and annual institute have played an important part in teacher-training. As much at least could be done for our school boards. They might by law be required to attend certain stated meetings to listen to specialists on school administration and through informal discussion at these meetings get expert knowledge for their important office. The state should provide mileage and liberal *per diem* pay for attendance upon all such meetings.

Next to be considered are the school overseers, commonly known as county or township superintendents or, in a few places, school commissioners. These officials, even more than the school boards, are in a position to mold the educational policy of the open country. But for many reasons they have not been equal to the task.

At this juncture let us recall that the early New England "school committees" had duties both of an administrative and supervisory nature. In time, as their tasks became multiplied and complex, the unsalaried committee found it necessary to delegate its supervisory powers to a paid superintendent, retaining only the administrative powers. Thus came into existence a school expert who, in our city schools is the center of the whole system—a man who outlines and carries into execution the educational and much of the business policy. Professional prestige and fair compensation have held strong educational talent in the city schools. But the rural schools have fared ill. They have been given over to a haphazard supervision that is usually underpaid and often both unskilled and inefficient. These pages do not permit of a rehearsal of the many more or less self-evident causes leading to present conditions. A word as to remedies must suffice.<sup>3</sup> To begin with, the size of the supervision unit has caused much trouble. In New England it was at first limited to the small district, and this, of course, could not afford adequate paid supervision. Since 1888, however, legislative enactments have provided for the union of two or more districts into "union districts," under which several townships may be placed under one competent supervisor. This system has recently been extended to several states of the Middle West which are under township organization, and works well.

<sup>3</sup> See *The American Rural School*, Ch. IV.



The chief difficulty is encountered, however, in the many states making use of the county superintendency. Here the unit of supervision is invariably so large that close and effective supervision is out of the question, if the work is left for one man to perform. Several remedies are at hand. One is to furnish the superintendent with competent office help, that he may spend practically all his time in the field; another, is to subdivide the county into two or more supervision districts, each under deputies responsible to the county superintendent. Such remedies are feasible and where tried have led to greatly improved supervision.

In addition to the above, the superintendency cannot be put on a true professional basis before the office is everywhere removed from party politics. So long as it is political many of the best teachers will not contest for the office. In states where the merit system prevails, and these are on the increase, the quality of supervision is rapidly improving. The superintendent's qualifications for office, too, should receive much more consideration than has been the case in the past. The man who supervises the schools should at least have as good an academic and professional preparation as the average teacher working under him. This is seldom the case.

The last member of the working staff to receive consideration in this discussion is the teacher. On him, after all, the greatest responsibility must rest. The new leadership needed in country districts cannot be forthcoming if the teacher is lacking in vision and power. The school now requires at least these things of the teacher: (1) He must be strong enough to establish himself as a leader in the community where he lives and labors; (2) he must have a good grasp on the organization and management of the new kind of farm school; and (3) he must show expert ability in dealing with the redirected school curriculum.

Here is the real problem of the rural school. We have very few teachers prepared for this work. The average teacher is city trained and knows little about the actual needs of country life. Indeed, it has been the belief for a long time that the rural teacher needs no special training at all. It is even argued "that a good teacher will teach any school well and there should be no differentiation." Such views are no longer tenable. A good academic preparation is necessary; but it does not immediately prepare the teacher to understand and meet the many baffling problems which belong to the revitalized rural community.



The teachers who have in hand the twelve million rural boys and girls are practically unprepared to meet the new difficulties. Here is a monumental task calling for solution. The agricultural colleges and normal schools have for some time been emphasizing agriculture and domestic science, and a limited number of teachers in these subjects have gone forth into the field. But, upon the whole, very few teachers of a "rural mind" have found their way to the country from these schools as yet. City and town high schools in half a dozen states have established normal departments or training classes to supply the demand for professionally prepared rural teachers. The only unfortunate thing about the whole matter is, that these training schools are at urban centers; and particularly, they find it hard to get the right point of view because they are more or less "city minded." Wisconsin attempts to overcome this difficulty in its county training schools, so-called. These strive to prepare youth from the farm to return to the farm as teachers. Present indications are, however, that the many state normal schools all over the country will organize departments for the training of teachers in rural life and problems, the new school organization, as well as in the redirected school curriculum. To the writer's knowledge at least a score of normal schools have or are organizing such departments.

(3) Hand in hand with teaching the subjects essential to farm life and a reorganized working staff to look after this teaching must develop an adequate modern school plant. Let us remember, the school is a farm school. It must be built for this purpose, in ample grounds—nature's own laboratory. It must be sanitary and well adapted to the new kind of teaching, be attractive and so large and centrally located as to become from the first the natural community center.

It is really needless to state here that in an architectural way the rural school has not kept abreast of the march in civilization. While well-equipped modern buildings are beginning to appear here and there, the schoolhouse is yet, with very few exceptions, the proverbial box car type so familiar to us all. No description is necessary here of its faulty lighting and ventilation, and utter lack of every sanitary appliance. Let it suffice to state that we cannot expect much in the way of community idealism to come from such ugly, uninviting structures, wind-swept and forlorn, set in some fence corner and exposed to summer sun and winter blast.



In communities where we must get along with the one-teacher schoolhouse for years to come, we should, by law, insist that where new houses are built or old ones reconstructed, such construction shall not begin until the plans and specifications have been accepted by a competent board appointed for that purpose. It should also be incumbent on the state superintendent of public instruction to publish a pamphlet on school architecture and place the same in the hands of all school officers, with all necessary recommendations and directions.

But the small school, make it as efficient as one will, cannot furnish the largest measure of educated leadership, such as is now sought. The slogan of our day is to re-establish the ancient principle of "equal rights to all," by offering in the country for country children as complete an education as is being offered in the city for city children. This contemplates the construction, here and there where needed, of schools having eight grades of work together with complete high school courses. The several small schools of a given community are to be consolidated into one strong central school plant, set in a large area of five to twenty acres, having its own garden, experiment plots, etc.

The new school will do for the community what the old was incapable of doing. It may be expected to train the boys to become scientific farmers and the girls practical farmers' helpmeets. It will inculcate a wholesome love for country life, and may be expected, accordingly, to counteract the townward exodus. But more: From the school will come the impulses to organize the rural population on a more permanent social and economic basis. It will become the center of all community interest. Here the extension lecture course may be held; here the neighborhood social entertainments and farmers' institutes and corn growing and cooking contests.

In a word, all that has been said above means that if the American rural school is to be the vital factor that it should be in the reconstruction of our rural life, the school must quit "marking time"; it must become more virile, more aggressive, and respond to the needs of present-day rural civilization.



## SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE AGRICULTURAL PRESS

BY J. CLYDE MARQUIS,  
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The influence which the printed page has had upon agriculture cannot be definitely measured. The idea has been generally accepted that practical and, especially, successful farming has until recently been conducted apart from the directions given in books. The disfavor with which the countryman who considers himself especially practical has regarded those who consult the written experiences of others in books has been too generally dwelt upon in discussions of the literature of agriculture.

The influence of the printed page is particularly subtle. The casual reader often believes that he has received no benefit from an academic treatment of a topic, yet his subsequent methods are indisputable evidence that he has absorbed an idea and adopted the suggestions, even though he believes he has not. To say that the most important single influence for the improvement of agriculture has been the periodical press would be both trite and unnecessary, yet no discussion of the influence of the printed page upon agricultural methods would be complete did it not begin with this premise.

A sketch of the development of agricultural literature is necessary to secure an adequate appreciation of its importance. Its beginnings are unknown, and there were probably treatises on practical agriculture in early periods of Chinese history of which we now have no record. There are only occasional glimpses of the development of the art of husbandry in the early history of man. These appear in Biblical literature and in Egyptian records and later become more evident in the writings of the Greeks and Romans.

The first foundations of the literature of husbandry which may be said to support the present structure were laid by the Roman writers, and many of the fundamental propositions presented by them may still be accepted with trifling modifications. The husband-



men of to-day would be benefited greatly by a thoughtful perusal of the advice of Cato and Columella.

Following the Roman period there is a stretch of centuries until the time when the early English writers appear. Arthur Young has been mentioned as the forerunner of our modern agricultural writings, and he unquestionably set a standard which has been seldom equalled and rarely surpassed in descriptive and helpful writing on rural topics. The awakening which resulted from the entertaining works by Young was the beginning of the agricultural revival in England, and was also coincident with the beginning of modern agriculture in America. The friendly relations between Young and George Washington unquestionably had considerable to do with the popularity of the writings by the former in America.

Among American pioneers were a few capable, foresighted men who appreciated the importance of permanent records in agriculture, and their work is principally to be found in the proceedings of the various agricultural societies then in the forefront of the agricultural advance. Even before the opening of the nineteenth century there was a considerable volume of helpful agricultural literature not only in proceedings of societies but in a few periodicals and in a number of excellent books. Following the opening of the new century the increase in printed matter relating to the farm and the field was steady but slow. Periodicals appeared and after more or less successful careers were absorbed, transformed or abandoned until the end of the first quarter of the century found very little substantial advancement. Beginning about 1830 the quantity and the character of books and journals on agriculture received a considerable impetus. Capable men began to realize that an interchange of ideas was necessary. Books for farmers could no longer satisfy those who were interested in a given subject because of the distribution of the people over a wider area and the growing complexity of rural problems. The earlier journals were published and edited by men of ideals, backed by the courage of accomplishment, who looked upon their journals as agencies for progress rather than mere commercial enterprises. They stood for certain reforms and improvements, and though sometimes radical and extreme in their methods, their purpose was on the whole to improve agriculture, which they unquestionably did.

The three prime divisions of agricultural literature then, as



to-day, were: First, the periodical; second, the public and semi-public document, and third, the book, the three standing in this order as to numbers distributed. Periodicals reach a larger audience than either the proceedings of societies, some of which are private and others semi-public documents, or books which have a more limited circulation but perhaps a greater influence upon those who are actually reached.

As a conclusion of this hasty glance at the development of agricultural literature, we find at the beginning of a new century that periodical literature is most highly developed and specialized, and, in the opinion of many, commercialized to an extreme degree which must sooner or later result in the consolidation or transformation of many journals. With approximately five hundred periodicals devoted to one or many of the phases of agriculture and related topics, the field of periodical literature may be said to be crowded. These numerous periodicals send out literally millions of copies each week, and while a large proportion of the rank and file of rural people do not read a periodical regularly, all are touched directly or indirectly by the ideas thus distributed. Were they properly distributed, there would be several copies each month for each person engaged in agriculture in the entire country. This consistent dissemination of literature, going on as it does without ceasing and with growing force, constitutes the greatest agency for agricultural improvement.

Next in order of importance must be placed the public documents. They have increased in numbers within the last decade with great rapidity, and within the past five years the quantity of reliable free literature for the man on the farm has been almost doubled. There is little doubt that this increase will continue for some time to come. The recognition by the daily newspaper of the importance of agriculture, and consequently the regular appearance of departments concerning such matters is one of the newest and most significant phases of this rapid increase of printed matter on farm topics.

For the books on agriculture there is less to be said. The most valuable works now found in our libraries are the product of the last decade. The tendency for more popular and attractive literature has unquestionably brought down the average quality of the books produced. The new book that will remain authentic for a decade is the exception, yet there are many books now near the



end of their second decade of popularity that continue to meet with a large demand. The character of the new works on agriculture is on the whole entirely helpful, since a new type of literature which is both interesting and instructive is certain to be evolved through the experience of the publishers.

To pass to the social significance of this literature, its improvement in quality and its increase in distribution and in influence are due to the appearance of a generation that is prepared to be benefited by it. As soon as men are trained to put human experience in rural affairs into forceful, convincing writing, the reader will be able to secure more material aid from such writings. The facility with which reliable matter may be secured is the greatest point in favor of its development. We receive our new agricultural thoughts in our daily press along with the news of progress in other industries. The organization of press bureaus within the last few weeks by the agricultural colleges, state experiment stations, boards of agriculture and federal organizations is an important advance step in this direction. Few items of particular significance in agriculture now escape the daily press, and whereas such news was previously written in a form designed to be of general interest, it is now prepared by a special writer often trained in agriculture, so that it is both interesting and accurate.

Plans are in operation in several state experiment stations to send regularly to the local newspapers carefully prepared matter designed to meet local needs. This newspaper matter on agriculture is closely followed by the dissemination of clearly written and attractive circulars and bulletins dealing with special topics. These appear either as reading courses or as separate publications just as the subjects are timely. Bulletins of this character are now being issued regularly by a large number of the leading experiment stations and boards of agriculture, and are being distributed through the mails at farmers' meetings, banks, etc., until the numbers that are actually placed in the hands of working farmers aggregate millions of copies each year. The printed proceedings of state and local associations of stockmen, horticulturists, grain-growers, etc., are distributed to members and others at practically no cost to the recipient. A library comprising literally tons of material, most of it trustworthy, is being assembled by many farmers at absolutely no cost beyond the postage on their letters of request.



The consumption of agricultural books has increased markedly during recent years. The extension of lecture courses into outlying districts has gained the attention of several people who as a consequence become interested in following up these addresses by a careful study of the books written by the same man. Once the working farmer has a taste of the benefits which he can secure from a careful study of such literature he demands large quantities of printed matter.

Much of the agricultural literature of the past decade has been local and specific in that it has dealt with particular problems as they exist in a particular community, and has not been designed to broaden the farmer's social relations. It is noteworthy that a large percentage of the newer literature deals with his social relations; the periodical press as well as books and public documents now deal with social questions. The travelling library, which is growing rapidly in favor in rural communities in many states, now has its quota of good books and bulletins dealing with agriculture. The shelves of the reading-rooms of all kinds of gathering places for country people now bear their burden of the new literature. While much of it falls far below the standards established by the best writers, the influence which it has is on the whole beneficial. Agricultural literature is on the average of as high a quality as the technical literature of any industry, and if judged with consideration of its quantity it perhaps exceeds in interest and helpfulness the average of the printed page of other industries.

The present need is not so much more literature as a better interpretation of farm problems, both economic and social. There is a vast amount of repetition and generalization in present-day writings. New ideas and details are growing less frequent from day to day. In the mass of literature a signboard is needed to point the way for the uninitiated. This interpretation of the printed page is expected to be the next important advance in the field of the literature of the farm.



## RURAL CONVENIENCES

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BY H. E. VAN NORMAN,

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For many years a serious problem, receiving the consideration of the student of rural problems was the drift from country to city and the causes which underlay it. Gradually conditions are changing and there is a decided movement toward the country. Careful analysis of the situation suggests that a large factor in the changed condition and increased interest in country life is the development of rural conveniences which make country living more enjoyable, not to emphasize their importance as commercial factors. The perfection and wide introduction of the telephone, rural delivery and interurban electric railway are revolutionizing the sentiment in many communities and are making marked changes in every community where they have been introduced.

From a business standpoint it is almost impossible to estimate the financial results accruing by reason of telephone communications. To call a neighbor and ask for the exchange of labor on certain work, as threshing, haying, etc., is only the work of a moment. To have a definite answer immediately is often worth much. To be able to 'phone the village storekeeper, who runs a country delivery and ask that supplies be sent out is a great convenience to the housewife. To 'phone the implement dealer and learn whether he has needed repairs in stock and, if so, to have them sent out on the next trolley car, if not to ask him to telegraph the factory to forward them immediately by express, is a saving in time that often amounts to a large saving when the planting or harvesting of crops is delayed because of needed repairs.

Unwritten history is replete with instances of farm homes which have been saved from destruction by fire because of prompt help secured by word over the telephone; that valuable animals have been saved through the early arrival of the veterinarian who was summoned by 'phone is another illustration of the telephone's usefulness. Many an itinerant sharper's plans for making "easy money" in a community have been frustrated because his first caller, after learning that he was trying to drive a sharp bargain



'phoned the next neighbor who, thus put on guard, did not become a victim. The sharper in disgust turns to other fields where there are no telephones over which to notify his prospective victims of his game.

Business appointments, social appointments, discussions of social and church plans, to say nothing of the mere friendly exchange of greeting over the telephone have probably compensated every owner of a rural telephone many times over for the expense of it if all business advantages were ignored.

In spite of the fact that on some rural lines there are from three to twenty 'phones, many of which are called into play in response to a summons which only demands one answer, the subscriber would not be without its convenience because of its lack of privacy. At some seasons of the year the general summons to the 'phone gives notice that central is ready to report the weather bureau's prognostication for the following day. When haying and harvest or late seeding are in progress the notice of a probable change in the weather may mean the saving of part or all of a crop that would otherwise have been lost.

The rural delivery of mail has stimulated correspondence between friends and family. The certainty that the letter if written will reach the postoffice at the latest within twenty-four hours and that the answer will be delivered to the door even though every member of the family is too busy to go to the postoffice, makes for a sense of nearness which can hardly be realized unless one has experienced the sense of isolation when six or seven miles from the postoffice and "too busy to go for the mail." The business advantage resulting from a quick communication with the merchant and factory is again a factor the value of which statistics do not report. To know that the letter mailed to-day will reach its destination on the morrow in time for necessary repairs to be shipped on the night express is an economic advantage which is having a desirable influence. The increase in the circulation of city dailies, agricultural weeklies and innumerable monthly magazines, social, religious and literary, has been very great. In no place is the truth of the saying "that the more one has the more one wants" greater than in the increasing use of reading matter because of rural delivery.

The regularity of market reports with its resulting closer understanding of market conditions and better judgment as to when



to sell are only incidents of the conveniences that rural mail service affords. This usefulness will be added to immeasurably when the nation inaugurates a parcel post that will make possible the quick exchange of moderate sized packages between country and city at a moderate cost and with the promptness now possible in the exchange of written communications.

The interurban car line connecting the country and the town has both a commercial and a social influence in a community. To know that one has only to dress and "be ready for the 7.05 car" in order to attend a social function, a church gathering, an instructive lecture or an evening entertainment or other recreation and finish in time to catch the last car for home is conducive to rural contentment. To be free from the necessity of hitching up the horse by the light of a lantern before one dresses for the evening function; to know that one enters a social circle with the atmosphere of the house rather than of the stable; to know that after the evening pleasure is over horse and rig will not have to be cared for, and to know that a spirited horse is not standing out exposed to weather, even with a blanket on, while his owner listens to the lecture increases very materially the attractiveness of the evening diversion. This is especially true if in weighing the attractions and disadvantages early rising on the morrow is one of the drawbacks to the evening's social or educational event.

The money value of the trolley car passing the farm door on which supplies and repairs may be shipped in response to a telephone call is difficult to estimate; not only is the service of a messenger saved to the farm work, but with the aid of the telephone the needed article is often on the way to the farm before the messenger could have been ready to start for town.

Increasingly, the interurban car is becoming a systematic means of marketing products. Hundreds of thousands of gallons of milk, cream and packages of butter are regularly shipped from the farm gate to the city distributor or consumer. Market garden products, live and dressed poultry, eggs, dressed pork and mutton are all handled on many interurban lines. In some fruit sections four and five cars may be seen standing on the siding being loaded with fruit at a station where there is not a farm building in sight. Seven o'clock the following morning will find these products in the great markets of the city, fifty, sixty or even a hundred miles away.



When car load shipments justify it the private siding for loading of hay, grain and other bulky crops may be secured at the individual farm.

The delivery of morning and evening papers in a territory not supplied by rural mail is often accomplished by means of the inter-urban car.

The automobile, by some considered a luxury, is in many sections rapidly becoming an economic factor of no small importance. The actual time saved in the delivery of milk and cream to the creamery or shipping station or the delivery of other perishable farm products; the quick securing of repairs; the rapid movement of farm labor from one job to another; the reduced time necessary to be absent from the farm work in order to transact business in town and get back are matters of vital importance, independent of any sentiment. The pleasure and contentment of the family which the automobile makes possible because of the evening automobile ride for diversion or the exchange of social courtesies and the attendance upon meetings of various kinds is not to be overlooked. The great distance that may be covered, at the same time the fact that the evening pleasure with the automobile does not lessen the efficiency of the farm motive power on the following day, as is the case when the farm team must be hitched into the pleasure vehicle, is a factor which the student of farm conditions should not overlook. From a half to an hour's distance from railroad, church and social activities is the maximum desirable limit for a farm home. With the ordinary team and conveyances this restricts the distance to not over six or seven miles. With the automobile this may be increased to from nine to twelve miles and yet the farmer will feel nearer to town and his neighbors because of his automobile than he did with his horse-drawn vehicle.

The perfection and reliability of the automobile is rapidly introducing into the rural life problem a new factor in the personnel of the city business man who finds that the thirty to fifty minutes trip from home to office daily will, when taken in his automobile, permit him to live in the country where his children may have country air and freedom, and where he can forget city business problems in an effort to develop plant and animal life, whether it takes the form of generous lawns and gardens or a systematic farm business.



The influence of this transplanted city dweller on the social life, the labor problem and the farm practice of his new environment are subjects for study which the automobile and the interurban electric car have largely made possible. Probably no one factor has been a greater stimulus to the development of country roads with their economic importance in the movement of farm products aside from pleasure than has the rural and city-owned automobile.

Aside from questions of relative remuneration, social intercourse and educational opportunities, it is the conveniences made possible by the telephone, rural mail deliveries, interurban car line and automobile that are the greatest factors in the rapidly changing rural and urban sentiment toward farm life, and are hastening the day when the successful farmer will be recognized as of the true aristocracy of the nation.



## THE RURAL HOME

BY SAMUEL G. DIXON, M.D., LL.D.,  
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### *The Site*

In selecting a site for a rural home, valleys and hollows should be avoided. It is desirable to locate the dwelling at least on the average elevation of the surrounding neighborhood. Be careful to keep away from the night condensation from the hillsides. The soil should be naturally well drained. Mosquito-breeding localities should be avoided in all climates. The dwelling should not be shaded by trees unless in tropical or sub-tropical regions, and even in such places only from the midday and early afternoon sun. In cold latitudes, forests to the north and northwest, far enough away not to throw shadows on the building earlier than two hours before sundown, are a protection against the severe winter winds.

Dust is detrimental to health; therefore, it is wise in selecting a residence in a rural district to keep well back from a public road. Before concluding upon a site, one should survey the neighborhood for public nuisances where offensive gases, smoke or dust may be carried by the winds to the home.

The house should preferably be long and narrow so that the broad sides may face the sun, and in this latitude receive the full sweep of the southern winds.

A square house is economical in shape and this should face or back to the southeast.

It is not desirable to have porches built long and narrow hugging the walls of the house, thereby cutting out the sun's rays from the first floor and cellar. A porch should be constructed either in the form of a square or parallelogram.

The long way of the parallelogram should be placed at right angles to the house. Either of these will give a porch throwing a minimum of shadow on the house and at the same time will, by its width, permit retirement from the hot sun in the summer and the



rains, whereas the occupants of a long, narrow porch are often driven into the house by the sun or a light fall of rain.

Second story porches for sleeping purposes are conducive to health. No room can be designed that permits of the same natural movement of fresh air as an open veranda.

#### *Geological Formation*

The topographical considerations being settled for the site, we consider next the geological formation of the surface and sub-soil. A glacial or broken rock formation, extending a foot or so below the foundations of the cellar walls gives a perfect drainage. A solid serpentine rock formation is very expensive to blast out, but makes a dry cellar. If you have to build in a clay formation, good glacial gravel or unglazed terra cotta pipes should be used for building drains, so that any water which settles down along the cellar walls can be readily carried off. Some of the shales make a fairly dry ground to build in. A broken hard sandstone is not an objectionable formation.

#### *Transportation Facilities*

Ready transportation to a business center is of great importance. Badly ventilated coaches on railroads, and the same objection obtains on many trolley lines, plus the deadly overcrowding, particularly when the industrious wage-earners are hurrying to their homes, are a constant menace to health.

#### *Water Supply*

This is one of the most important of all requisites, yet often overlooked until the grounds have been purchased; yes, often the house is built before the purity of the water supply has been determined.

Water found in limestone formations is often polluted. The fissures in limestone will carry water and sewage almost as well as iron pipes. So well is the fact appreciated by oldtime dwellers on such formations that they bore down until they find a limestone fissure and then drain their sewage into the same. In such formations you find some of the gushing springs spouting out great volumes of good looking but infected water. They have been prized for power and for domestic purposes, but the science of to-day often demonstrates their absolute unfitness for the latter.



Open streams vary much in the degree of their purity. This depends upon the character of the watersheds. The banks are often occupied by dwellings which drain their sewage directly or indirectly into them. They often run along or under railroads where they catch the sewage from the passing trains. They often run near and along public roads from the gutters of which they collect the sewage from the traveler.

Surface water, to be safe, should be filtered unless it is carried in pipes from a non-inhabited and untraveled watershed.

Surface springs depend upon the formation through which they travel as well as on the watershed which collects them. The water travels under the surface until the formation of the earth's surface permits it to again flow out at the spot called the spring.

Deep wells, tubed down into the sandstone, and carefully cased off generally produce a good water. The purity of water must be determined from a physical examination of the watershed as well as by the chemist and bacteriologist.

If a storage tank is used for a private water supply it should be made of unpainted wood, preferably gulf cypress or cedar. Black iron covered with asphaltum makes a safe storage tank. Lead or galvanized iron should not be used. The top should be covered with a fly screen to preclude the entrance of insects, rats or mice.

The intake should enter the top at the opposite end from the outlet. The latter should enter about three inches above the bottom so as not to disturb the sediment in the bottom of the reservoir.

### *Sewerage and Drainage*

Equally important with the securing of a good, wholesome abundant water supply is the provision for its disposal after use. To flood a house with water without making ample arrangement for its ultimate disposition is to commit an absurd blunder which must lead to much subsequent annoyance and trouble. In fact, the sewerage should have the first consideration. The reverse plan is like "putting the cart before the horse."

The sewage, including the bath water and kitchen waste, must not be discharged into surface or underground streams. It can be passed into cement cesspools where the use of water is not too excessive; otherwise the cost of cleaning out would be prohibitory.



The cesspool can be often cleansed by pumping off the effluent, disinfecting it and using it for fertilizing where sufficient ground can be had. Gravel, broken stone, and disintegrated iron formations can be used for percolating cesspools when far removed from streams or shallow wells used for drinking purposes. Filter plants consisting of biological tanks, sprinkling beds and sand filtration and disinfecting tanks can be used so that the effluent can, with comparative safety, be permitted to pass into streams. The careless disposal of house sewage has cost the American people millions of lives, much suffering and great loss of productive mental and physical labor. The disposal of all sewage should be directed by a sanitary engineer.

### *Plumbing*

The plumbing should be of the most sanitary kind. The soil pipes must be carried above the highest point of the roof. All fixtures should be trapped. The lavatories and bathtubs must be plugged at the bottom of the fixtures and not back in the waste pipe as that would leave a part of the dirty pipe to fill with water and then back up into the lavatory or bathtub water that would be drawn to wash in. A chain attached to the plug is a very insanitary arrangement and should be forbidden by law. An old-fashioned stand pipe or plug worked so that it is forced up or down from an arrangement outside the tub are both highly sanitary.

### *Ventilation*

No room, including bath and toilet rooms, should be built without a window opening to the outside of the building. Every room should have at least two windows of good size extending from a foot below the ceiling to at least two feet above the floor, preferably in walls at right angles to each other.

Bedrooms should have transoms over the doors opening into the halls so as to permit of cross-ventilation. With the doors of the first floor rooms generally open and the transoms just referred to from the bedrooms opening into the second and third story halls, we secure an important ventilating factor if the well of the stairway is heated and carried to a vent at the roof.

Transoms over the doors on the first floor opening to the outside make excellent inlets for fresh air. They should be hinged at the bottom so that the incoming air first strikes the ceiling instead of being directed immediately to the floor.



*Heating*

Every dwelling should have a dry, well-lighted cellar with a headway giving sufficient fall to ensure a ready return of water to the boiler of a steam or hot-water heating system in case one or the other should be used. The heating system may be a hot-air furnace fired by coal, gas, sprayed oil or wood, depending upon the locality. The heating surfaces in any system should be supplied by fresh, outdoor air robbed of its natural wind movement as much as possible by a receiving chamber or chambers so that the air, when warmed, may be forced along by the falling of the cold outdoor air upon it and driving it up the hot air flues to the dwelling parts of the building. This is called indirect heating. Direct heating in living rooms, offices or public buildings is the cause of much ill-health and the loss of many useful lives. *Direct* heating is a system in which a steam or hot-water radiator is placed in a room or hall, thus simply heating the same air in the building over and over again after it has been chilled, principally by the cold glass in the windows. Such air is soon robbed of its oxygen by those occupying the room and becomes filled with organic matter from the exhalations from the human body. Living in such an atmosphere the blood soon becomes poor and the different organs of the body are starved and fail to do their work, and then the body falls a victim to all sorts of diseases. Three thousand cubic feet should be supplied for each person every hour. To maintain perfect health we must live in a moving body of fresh air both night and day, let it be warm or cold.

The hot-air flues should be built of terra cotta. It is economical to have a continuous tin flue inside the terra cotta so as to conserve all the heat. While the outside walls are colder, the heating register is always better placed on the outside walls or near them in one of the cross-section walls, as the movement is generally from the outside wall and, therefore, you get a more uniform distribution of warm air through the room. Forced ventilation is too expensive for the large majority of rural homes.

If a hot-air furnace is used, water should be kept in the hot-air chamber constantly, and the furnace kept in perfect order to prevent poisonous gases from leaking into the former to be thus distributed throughout the house.

When stoves, furnace or boiler fires are banked at night, the



fire door should not be used to check the draft. If, however, it is so used, a candle or lighted match should be held at the top of the door as it is being opened to gauge how wide to open it. It should never be opened wider than to the point where the flame is drawn into the fire-box, otherwise the gases will escape into the room. This same process should be adopted with the lid of the range fire in the kitchen. The air of houses is often charged with poisonous gases from the kitchen fire on account of the coal being built up above the top of range or the lid having been so far removed that the gases escape into the room instead of being drawn into the fire and passing up the smoke flue.

Open fires are good as auxiliaries with other methods of heating. They will overcome the dangers of the pernicious direct radiator system if sufficiently large to demand 500 cubic feet of fresh air per person every hour.

#### *The Cellar*

The cellar floor should be of cement or asphaltum. The construction should be such that rats cannot find their way into the walls. All vermin are dangerous to health. The inside walls would be better finished of some material that can be washed or easily cleansed.

The cellar should have an eight-foot ceiling, the first and second floors at least ten feet, the third from eight to nine feet.

#### *Materials*

The roof should be fire and waterproof. Hardburned brick, lined, giving an air space, makes a good wall. A cheaper structure would be of wooden or asbestos shingles. A soft stone makes a dryer house than the hard rock. All stone walls should be lined with hollow terra cotta. A dampproof course should be introduced in outside walls just below the first floor joist. All houses should be elevated sufficiently to permit of light, air and sunshine in the cellars.

#### *Lighting*

The lighting is important. Water gas is highly poisonous and, therefore, when used, the fixtures should be kept in perfect order with the stops so constructed that there is a good shoulder for the key to turn hard against, so that it cannot be turned too far around



and thus leave the gas partly on when the handler believes he has turned it completely off. Fixtures for any system of lighting should be placed beyond the reach of children.

Coal gas is much less dangerous, yet should be carefully guarded against. Acetylene gas is less dangerous. When mixed with too much of the atmosphere, it will explode. This should not occur owing to its early detection, as it is very pungent when breathed and, therefore, its presence easily detected. It should never be manufactured in the home.

Electric light is dangerous unless the wires are well insulated and passed through tubes along their entire course.

The best light for the eyes is from lamps placed in a bowl with a reflecting lining, hanging from the ceiling. This will throw a diffused light over the room when the reflected rays strike a light-colored ceiling.

#### *Stables*

All stables should be kept cleared of manure, this being placed in pits and screened so that flies cannot enter to lay their millions of eggs. To guard against insects and vermin carrying filth into your house and on to your food, the dwelling should be screened. The kitchen and dining-rooms should certainly be screened, if one cannot afford to protect the entire house.

It may be added as a corollary to the above advice that the rural dweller should be not less critical as to the sanitary conditions of his business home in which he spends nearly half his life, than he is as to those of his home in the country.



## RURAL RECREATION, A SOCIALIZING FACTOR

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In April, 1906, a few men and women interested in play met in Washington, D. C., and organized the Playground Association of America. The little group was received at the White House by President Roosevelt, who later consented to become honorary president of the infant organization. Dr. Luther Halsey Gulick was made president.

Thus launched, the association grew with amazing rapidity and at the end of the first year, when a great playground congress was held in Chicago, it was realized that one of the most profoundly significant social and educational movements of modern times was taking shape, and had already become powerful and effective.

And this development has gone on with ever accelerating momentum until now every state in the Union is reached by its propaganda. A splendid literature on play has developed, and since unlooked-for ramifications and extensions of the play propaganda have appeared as the movement progressed, carefully selected committees have explored, charted, studied and described these, their reports having been published in the bulky proceedings of the playground association.

In the meantime the name of the association itself has been broadened to include all that the newer conception of the playground idea stands for, and has been changed to the "Playground and Recreation Association of America," its headquarters being in the Metropolitan Building in New York, where a strong official force is maintained, while field secretaries are busy the country over responding to calls for help.

Playgrounds and recreation centers, organized in the interests of adults as well as of children, are appearing everywhere, out of doors, in buildings, on roofs, in asylums, hospitals, factories, and even within prison yards. It has been discovered that play is not only a means of happiness, but is essential as a means of normal physical development, as a means of intellectual, moral and social



education. In many institutions it is found to have therapeutic uses for the healing of disease, as well as for breaking up the monotonous routine of institutional life. It is quite natural that most of this activity has been confined to our cities, first, because nearly all the promoters were city people, and, second, because it had not been realized, perhaps we may say suspected, that country people as well as city people needed supervised recreation and play. Yet we find in these days that the rural population also is coming to its own, and that a very vigorous extension of the play propaganda is reaching even into the country. What its purpose, methods and outcome are we must now proceed to describe, or rather hint at, for in the limited space allotted to this article nothing but a short resumé of the subject can be given.

The United States census designates as rural all who live outside of cities of 8,000 or more in population. In common use, however, it has a much narrower significance, and for the purposes of the present discussion we shall limit it to the little villages, cross-road communities, camps, and scattered populations, seaboard and inland, which have to do with the developing and marketing of the natural resources of the country. Suburban communities and large villages are not rural. It is a pity that the word rural is not better comprehended, for looseness in its use leads to looseness in thought and to error in inference and in conclusion. No one can grasp the real meaning of the word who has not lived in the country and absorbed the psychology of the truly rural mind. Socially and psychologically the native of the open country is different from the urbanite. One may live in the country for years and not get the rural feeling and the rural point of view. To own a farm or a house in the country does not necessarily make the owner rural. He may never fully grasp the significance of rural life. If he is city bred, he probably never will. He will be in the country but not of it.

Now the truly rural mind as developed on the farm is greater than the urban mind. It is almost purely democratic. In it, labor and capital are reconciled, and the farmer sees no reason why he and his hired help should not eat as well as work side by side in shirtsleeves. In it the psychology of manufacturing, buying, selling, storing and transporting, operate in harmony in one mind instead of at cross purposes in many minds as in the city. In it



the professional, the scientific, and the mercantile must strike a fairly even balance. The fully developed rural mind, the product of its environment, is more original, more versatile, more accurate, more philosophical, more practical, more persevering than the urban mind; it is a larger, freer mind and dominates tremendously.

It is because of this type of farm bred mind that our leaders have largely come from rural life. Ninety-four per cent of the leading citizens of one of our large Eastern cities, according to Dr. Hillis, of Brooklyn, were brought up on the farm. Of a group of one hundred representative men, commercial and professional, in Chicago, it was found that eighty-five per cent were farm or village bred. Eighty-five per cent of the students in four colleges and seminaries came from country districts, while upwards of sixty per cent of the men and women mentioned in *Who's Who* likewise are from the country. Dr. Hillis well says: "The brain and nerve centers are not more dependent upon the soundness of the related tissues than the city upon the rural districts."

And it is, of course, essential to national welfare that the rural districts should continue to furnish such leaders and therefore should be populous, prosperous, and contented. Yet everyone knows that they are neither the one nor the other. Isolation, hard work, long hours and small returns have increased discontent especially amongst the young, while the call of the city has been increasingly seductive. So it is not to be wondered at that a natural, legitimate migration from country to town has swelled to alarming proportions, scores of thousands fleeing like fugitives from the hardships and isolation of the farm lands, their departure making still more dreary and deadening to those who remain behind, the isolation from which they had escaped, and augmenting a discontent that in many sections has caused people to settle down into an almost helpless lethargy. The uppermost sentiment nearly everywhere seems to be: "Any thing but this! How can I get away?" National welfare requires that this point of view be changed to one in which, with cheery hopefulness, all ask: "How can we make conditions such that we shall be glad to stay?"

At this point it is important to bear in mind that the terms "rural" and "country" mean very different things in different sections. A statement that is entirely applicable to a farming section or to country villages in, say, the mountain regions of eastern Ten-



nessee, or perhaps nearer home, should not be considered as "personal" by residents of the many cultured, rural communities of which this nation is so justly proud. Stop a moment to consider the varied rural communities of this land of ours. Think of the mountain whites and the Georgia "crackers," think of the sparsely settled population of the Far West, of the rude mining settlements and lumber districts, perhaps fifty miles from any railroad, think of the black belt of the South, the half-civilized Indians, the undesirable immigrants, and others who are dispersed over our agricultural districts East, West, North and South, some perhaps nearer than we like, and remember that these are part and parcel of the rural problem.

In many rural communities conditions are thoroughly disheartening. Something must be done for them. With schools and churches, feeble, extinct, or unheard of, no worse places could be conceived of in which to bring up children. No wonder people want to leave. Yet for the sake of our national welfare they must be made wholesome.

Now, while a complete and frank description of such rural conditions as may be found in many parts of all of our states would make a dark picture, yet with it all one would have to tell of many communities of refinement and great prosperity, and of many measures of relief and promises of better days. A rural renaissance has already dawned. Better methods of agriculture and of business co-operation will relieve the industrial and economic elements of the situation, while an awakening church, an improved school, and a richer and more inspiring community life will tend to make social conditions centripetal instead of centrifugal and lessen the suffering from isolation.

It is in this latter respect that the recreation and playground idea will make itself felt, and it is hardly putting it too strongly to say that a well planned propaganda of recreation is as vital a necessity to the country's welfare as is improved farming.

Country people need more recreation and they need to be *trained* in the art of recreation and amusement. The older people everywhere give but little thought to the recreational side of life, while with certain elements of the population the quest for means of passing leisure hours often takes crude, uninteresting and even childish forms, not infrequently is rough and grotesque, and



altogether too commonly leads to immorality to a degree that is not generally suspected.

Into this matter of promoting wholesome recreation for the young and old the rural church, the reconstructed school, sometimes consolidated but more frequently under one teacher, the rural Y. M. C. A., the grange, and other fraternal orders, must enter heart and soul. As the writer has pointed out elsewhere, an adequate program of play would include pleasurable outdoor and indoor occupation, for (a) day schools, (b) homes, (c) Sunday schools, (d) other social organizations, public and private, suitable for Sundays as well as week-days, adjusted to the season of the year, and adapted to the needs of (1) very little children, (2) children from eight to thirteen, (3) boys and girls in the adolescent period, (4) adults; sex as well as age being taken into account when necessary. The word play thus broadened brings us into the realms of kindergartens, manual training departments, vacation schools, summer camps, boys' clubs, girls' clubs, nature-study clubs, camera clubs, collection clubs; it has to do with swimming, fishing, boating, skating, skeeing, and snow-shoeing; also with all forms of athletics; with the use of tools and implements, with the use of clay, plasticine, paper pulp, and putty for modeling; with the use of tops and marbles, bean-bags, balls and kites, stilts, toys, soap bubbles, cards, dissected maps, scrap books, and the myriad other amusement materials, plays and games which are the heritage of the human race, and without sharing in which no child can grow to complete manhood or womanhood, and no adult can live a cheerful, joyous, well-rounded-out life.

Let us itemize with brief comment or description some of the more important phases of a propaganda for socialized, supervised recreation, indoors and outdoors, in home, church, school, and community. Of course, we can do no more than hastily glance at the possibilities, with the hope of opening up the field in a suggestive way.

1. Amongst other indoor activities we should emphasize story telling. Mr. Richard T. Wyche, so well known as an apostle of this great and important art, says, "There are many homes that cannot afford libraries and the rich adornment of art, but no home is so humble that parents cannot gather the children around the fireside on a winter's evening or about the doorsteps in the twilight of a



summer's day and tell them stories." This is an art that parents and many other adults should cultivate. And note Mr. Wyche's suggestion about the fireside. The open fireplace can work social wonders if people will only give it a chance! Suggestive lists of books on story telling may be obtained of the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

2. From the story told at the fireside to the story told on a stage or platform before an audience is a natural evolution. Dramatic societies should be organized in every good sized community, and where the population is scattered several communities may unite to form one. We are only beginning to sense the educational value of dramatization. Yet once it was the best if not the only way to spread great truths amongst the people, as, for instance, the teaching of Biblical events and characters by the mystery and miracle plays of the middle ages. Note the results of an active village dramatic society in Oberammergau, Germany. Largely through its influence there has developed the most remarkable community in all this world, a little village in a remote mountain district, which generation after generation continues to produce gifted men, superb women and beautiful, wonderfully beautiful, and clever children, in extraordinary numbers. Oberammergau cannot be duplicated elsewhere perhaps, yet properly conducted dramatics will greatly enrich life in our country communities, as it has there.

3. Clubs for boys and girls are as necessary in the country as in the city. Besides clubs covering particular interests like photography, nature-study, Bible study, etc., organizations like the Boy Scouts, Campfire Girls, Knights of King Arthur and Pioneer Girls should be fostered and supervised by adults. Here is where the country pastor may exert a powerful influence, as well as the country teacher.

4. The grange and other fraternal orders, fire companies, literary and library associations furnish club life for men and women, and in these the recreation idea may well be emphasized. To such organizations the children must appeal for sympathy and help in their playground propaganda. A woman's club in a certain village gave a giant stride to the children. Its example is worthy of emulation.

5. Promoted by these organizations, communities should maintain lecture and entertainment courses, reading circles, a public



library, and, where possible, a choral union. Then there is the stereopticon with its wonderful possibilities. No community or group of communities should be without one, and systematic provision for its use should be made. The old fashioned husking bees and barn raisings are things of the past in all but a few communities, but why not bring back the spelling match and the singing school? Those of us who were brought up on such things know what an important part they played in our lives.

6. Church, school and other socials should pay more intelligent attention to their programs of recreation. Social evenings frequently are uninteresting, insipid and foolish because not carefully planned. They disgust and alienate instead of proving attractive and inspiring. On such occasions there may well be a serious core to the evening, a short literary and musical program, for instance, or a club meeting to discuss matters of community interest, to be preceded and followed by plenty of fun and amusement. Well thought out programs of entertainment, fun and recreation for all sorts of gatherings in the country are greatly needed.

7. Township or county gatherings, extending perhaps through two or three days, have been successfully maintained in several states. Most famous of these is the Hesperia movement, a winter gathering of Michigan farmers and teachers which has met for years in Hesperia, miles from any railway, to enjoy a program of lectures, music and discussion from Thursday night to Saturday night. Mr. D. E. McClure, to whom most of the credit for this movement must be given, said once, "Thousands of people have been inspired, made better, at the Hesperia meetings." Hesperia, with its powerful appeal to the craving for wholesome recreation, certainly has induced many to stay on their farms. It is a signal instance of the efficacy of a properly conducted "Stay on the Farm Movement," which is far more important than the "Back to the Farm Movement."

8. Itinerant social and literary meetings have also proved a success. Assembling by strawload or by walking parties on a given Saturday, bringing their lunch and meeting in a school house, church or village hall, people from several communities may gather with great profit and pleasure several times a year.

9. Systematic effort should be made to teach plays and games to children and to instruct them in the art of framing up programs



of indoor amusement. Such books as Bancroft's "Games for the Playground, Home, School and Gymnasium," the Dan Beard Handy Books, Nugent's "New Games and Amusements" and Johnson's "Education by Plays and Games" should be owned by every school and church, and constantly used. Country children do not play enough because they do not know enough about play. Their repertoire of games is exceeding limited, and their elders are even worse off than they are. Hence the importance of systematic effort to teach them what and how to play. The splendid work being done in this direction by some of the Y. M. C. A. county work secretaries, who actually have gone from one country school to another to ask permission to teach the children a few new games, is worthy of emulation.

10. Manual training, industrial and domestic arts, and nature-study furnish much indoor occupation which has high recreational value. The making of collections (stamps, autographs, eggs, etc.) should be encouraged, so should the making of useful articles for the home or school. Manual methods in Sunday school work are also decidedly in point here.

11. What has so far been said suggests the importance of having, in connection with church, school and home, a definite store-room or place for play and recreation materials, which should be treated with the same dignity as a library and should be as liberally maintained as possible. In it would be kept not only the toys and games, but materials for constructing various articles, drawing and painting materials, costumes that have been used in dramatics and that will surely come in handy again some day, pictures, projection apparatus, etc.

Outdoor recreation and play for country communities may include (1) activities suggested by the environment itself, such as hunting, fishing, camping, tramping, mountain climbing, water sports, winter sports, certain phases of nature-study and of farm work, like sugar making, husking bees, and so on; (2) group activities for boys like the Boy Scouts, and for girls like the Camp-fire Girls; (3) regular playground activities with organized and supervised plays, games and athletics; (4) community activities, such as pageants and festivals, county fairs and athletic field days and play picnics. Of these:

1. Hunting and fishing cannot figure conspicuously in the long



settled sections of the country for the obvious reason that fish and game are scarce. When these sports are no longer available, other forms of recreation must be provided to take their place, though not with the expectation that they will be as effective. The old-fashioned husking bee is no more, but the sugar bush is still with us, though in less romantic form because of its modern methods. It is now very business like and is no longer the "recreation center" it used to be in numberless places, with its rude shelter, its kettles, sap buckets and roaring campfires.

To supplement, or to take the place of these old time recreations, the more modern forms of camping out may well be encouraged in the country. Who has not known of boys putting up a tent near the house, or making a rough shelter in the woods and sleeping and eating in it for days at a time? Here is an instinct of which country pastors and teachers may well take advantage. A few tents in a community, owned by the church perhaps, or by the grange, or even by a ladies' club, may be made a means of grace to many if under the supervision of a wise leader.

2. Tramping is an almost unknown, or at least unpracticed, form of recreation in America, though it is popular in Europe. Pile some bedding into a wagon with provisions and extra clothing, and, with an objective point two or three days away, such as some historic site, some college of agriculture, some mountain, city or body of water, let the trampers set forth properly supervised and guided, camping along the road and thoroughly enjoying an outing whose retrospect is only less delightful than the actual experience, especially if cameras are taken along to make a visual record of current events.

3. Mountain climbing is another pastime which is just beginning to be appreciated in this country, but chiefly by city people. Tens of thousands of our rural population live near superb mountains, the conquest of which by climbing will prove most inspiring to mountaineering clubs whose membership should include women and girls. Recent magazine articles show the possibilities of this sport.

4. What has been called the "caravan" gives an interesting outing. It is a train of wagons, fitted up as comfortably and as attractively as may be desired, *a la* gypsy style, one serving as a parlor, another as a kitchen, others as sleeping rooms, and so on,



the caravan moving leisurely through the country in a most comfortable outing.

5. For the water there is the houseboat, with a great variety of possibilities, perhaps too expensive for a single family, but feasible for co-operative effort, especially if fitted up in the simple inexpensive way practiced by fishermen and river boatmen.

Tramping and camping expeditions may be accompanied by programs of plays and games, athletic events and water sports to any extent desired, with appropriate badges and mementos for excellence shown in competition or in attaining certain standards. Indeed, some outings are rendered onerous and dull for lack of the incidental play which should be counted on to liven up the day's doings and prevent monotony.

6. The Boy Scouts and Campfire Girls should be organized in country districts as well as in cities, possibly with slightly different standards and tests. "Rural Scouts" have already appeared in the West, and perhaps this name instead of "Boy Scouts" should be adopted for country boys. Country girls have not been organized along these lines, although an organization of "Pioneer Girls" has been projected. But in the Tomato Clubs of the South girls have achieved an organization which, at the same time that it is professedly vocational, lends itself to social recreation to any desired extent. The same is true of the Corn Clubs and other similar organizations of country boys. Yet these vocational clubs, strongly recreational as they may be, cannot play that rich part in the social development of adolescents as do the Boy Scouts and Campfire Girls.

So far we have touched on the more informal modes of recreation, the equipment for which is the world about us in which man and nature are playmates. We now come to that still greater and perhaps more important, certainly more social, field of recreation, in which man plays with man, combining for purposes of recreation in numberless forms of activity which, when properly organized and supervised, develop efficiency, build character, and often fuse discordant elements into a homogeneous, co-operating mass. In this more specialized field the recreational activities center at the playground, and here play comes to be recognized as one of the most serious and important concerns of life.

One of the best things ever said about play comes from Mr.



Joseph Lee, whom we delight to honor as the father of the modern playground movement in this country. "The thing that most needs to be understood about play," he says, "is that it is not a luxury, but a necessity; it is not something that a child *likes* to have; it is something that he *must* have if he is to grow up. It is more than an essential part of his education; it is an essential part of the law of his growth, of the process by which he becomes a man at all." All this is as true for the country child as for the city child.

But we must take a still wider view of outdoor play, and regard it as an essential for adults as well as for children. We should never get too old to play, and since it is so universally important we must undertake seriously to provide adequate play and recreation facilities for all. Having caught the wider significance of the playground idea, we shall come to recognize that the organized and supervised playground is as much a social institution as are the church and school.

And I would here emphasize, as I have in previous articles, that play in the country is not so much to promote health as to develop the higher social instincts, to introduce another powerful centripetal factor into country life which will tend to counteract the expulsive features which have been so actively depopulating our rural districts. A very important result of play in the country is the development of community spirit which is so seriously lacking in country districts. There seems to be so little to hold the people together. But once interest children in play, get them to organize teams, design and make a good school banner, compose and learn a school cheer, adopt a distinctive athletic costume or even a celluloid button which is to be worn when they go to the next great play festival and compete with other schools, and there will be no lack of community spirit so far as the children are concerned, and the adult population will soon be catching something of it too.

In country places playgrounds will have to come, if they come at all, through the generosity of some individual or clubs or on the initiative of some organization like a powerful school or college, a wide-awake church or a county work department of the Y. M. C. A. And they are actually coming in considerable numbers and in all parts of the country, and everywhere they produce the same social results. That is, they bring about fine community spirit, awaken civic consciousness and co-operation, and make for a whole-souled



companionship instead of for individualism and isolation. If we could see the playground idea prevail throughout the rural communities of the land, the gain to the nation through the ever increasing number of cheerful, contented, industrious, patriotic citizens will be far greater than if mines of fabulous wealth were uncovered or all the commerce of the world were brought under our flag.

Regular, supervised play should begin at the home, and how fortunate the children who have parents who are in sympathy with play and who will occasionally find time to play with their children! Sand pile, swings and other inexpensive apparatus are easily provided, and so are the chinning bar, jumping pit and running course.

The same is true at the school, even the one-room school. Helpful literature is now available for those who are willing to take up this work. The country road will have to be pressed into service for some of the activities, but every school should have ample grounds laid out and equipped for such games as volley ball, badminton, prisoner's base, captain ball, baseball or playground ball (the latter requiring much less space than the former), relay races, etc. Marbles and kite flying should be encouraged, and so should red rover, leapfrog, duck on the rock, moving statues, and a hundred other games that are readily learned.

Folk dancing should be revived in the country as it has been in the city. Here again manuals of instruction are ready.

Teachers, pastors and play leaders should make use of excursions, picnics and camping expeditions, as suggested above.

National holidays and other special occasions may be observed by the holding of pageants. There is already a generous literature on this subject which may be obtained through the Playground and Recreation Association of America. The pageant idea for country communities has been worked out by Mr. W. C. Langdon at Thetford, Vermont. His pamphlet, "The Pageant of Thetford," is a classic in the literature of recreation.

An essential phase of playground activity is athletics. These cannot be elaborate, of course, and if the teacher feels unequal to the task perhaps the country pastor or some other adult in the community would help.

A beginning in athletics is usually made by having the boys run, jump and chin themselves in accordance with certain directions and standards as explained in the following blank, a badge or button being given to each boy who attains the required standards:



### ATHLETIC BADGE COMPETITION

## COUNTRY SCHOOL ATHLETIC LEAGUE,.....

Pupil	W'gt	Age	Yr.	Mo.	Da.	School
EVENTS				Required Standard	Actual Record	Date
BOYS UNDER 13 chinning				4 times		
stand'g broad jump				5 ft. 9 in.		
60 yards dash				8 3-5 sec.		
BOYS UNDER 15 chinning				6 times		
stan'g broad jump				6 ft. 6 in.		
100 yards dash				14 sec.		
BOYS UNDER 21 chinning				9 times		
running high jump				4 ft. 4 in.		
220 yards dash				28 sec.		
<i>Teacher</i>						
<i>For Central Committee</i>						

### REGULATIONS

This competition is to take place at each school under the direction of the teacher and a representative of the central committee.

Only those whose deportment and scholarship are satisfactory may compete.

Boys may run barefoot.

**ONLY WINNERS OF AN ATHLETIC BADGE OR BUTTON ARE ELIGIBLE** to enter the **FIELD DAY CHAMPIONSHIP EVENTS.**

There shall be but **TWO TRIALS** in chinning, **TWO** in the dashes, and **THREE** in the jumps.

**CHINNING:**—The boy must extend himself full length, arms straight, before and after each pull up: he must bring his chin fairly over the bar each time.

The feet must not touch the floor or ground.

**JUMPING:**—(See rules XXV. and XXVII. Official Handbook, P.S.A.L.)

**RUNNING:**—(See rule VIII.)

The most important factor in promoting play in the country is the field day and play picnic, the great day of the year when the country schools of the district or county meet at some central point and pass the day in play. Since the first field day of this sort was started by the writer of this paper in a little village in New York State some seven years ago, the idea has spread very generally through the country, and it may be said that the field day and play picnic has become an important rural institution. Its main features are as follows:

A country school athletic league is organized among the schools of a county or commissioners' district to foster all kinds of clean athletics among country children, to teach them and their teachers outdoor and indoor games, and to bring the schools together at least once a year in a great field day and play picnic. For purposes of instruction, circular letters giving lists of books on games and athletics and other important particulars are sent to all teachers and pastors, while a number of games like prisoner's base, captain ball and some relay races are published with illustrative cuts in village papers and sent broadcast through the county. To further



aid the play propaganda volunteers are sent to the country schools to teach games and to help with the local athletic and badge contests. The matter is also presented at granges, institutes and public meetings by aid of the stereopticon.

Individual schools are encouraged to organize relay teams, and teams to play prisoner's base, baseball and other group games, and to compete with other schools. Individual schools are encouraged to have their own field days, while groups of three or four schools are urged to have an annual meet.

The grounds for the play festival, large enough to accommodate several thousand people, are portioned off into several play areas. In one place there are courts for prisoner's base, captain ball, bean-bag toss, basket-ball throw, and so on; another area is set aside for baseball or playground ball; still another is devoted to giant strides, playground slides, merry-go-rounds, and swings; nets are also stretched for volley ball, tennis and badminton, pits are dug for jumping, courses marked out for running and racing, a range laid out for archery, and many an interesting game or contrivance for testing skill or otherwise affording amusement is at hand here and there to attract little groups of children, who wander about all day long in perfect delight from one interesting occupation to another.

Provision is made for checking the packages and lunches of the thousands of guests, while water and toilet accommodations must be carefully and generously planned. Tents must be set up for those who are to sell frankfurters, sandwiches, ice cream and soft drinks.

An important feature of the occasion is the day nursery, consisting of one or more tents, furnished with cots, kindergarten tables and play materials, a sand pile just outside the door, and appropriate eatables which may well include sterilized milk in bottles for the infants. Here mothers may check their babies free of charge, leaving them in competent care while they themselves spend the hours in joyous freedom.

Carefully prepared programs are printed and freely distributed and trained play leaders are at hand to teach children and adults how to play and to supervise the activities of the day.

Balloon ascensions and other imported amusements and spectacles are strictly excluded, for this is a day of play of the people,



by the people and for the people. Thousands come to these occasions, and we want these thousands to play and not merely to be amused by hired performers.

Quoting from a recent article by the writer of this paper:

It is well worth while to stand at a place of vantage and watch these thousands assemble from every direction intent upon play, some by train, many on foot and horseback, and hundreds by wagon, caravans of which wind their way from neighboring villages and farms. Sometimes an entire district school comes to town on a hay-wagon, with flags and banners flying and with its school cheer frequently in evidence. Just think for a moment what this means to that school. It shows that co-operation, fellow-feeling, school spirit, community loyalty, and kindred virtues have been born into their lives, and that perhaps for the first time in their experience the social forces of country life have become centripetal and attractive instead of centrifugal and expulsive.

It should be emphasized that a play festival is not just for fun; it is not merely to while away leisure time; it is not a mere picnic. The latter has its value and is not to be decried, but it usually grows out of no special purpose other than to have a pleasing outing, and it exercises no permanent influence. The play festival, on the other hand, like the ancient festivals and feast days which are made familiar to us through the Bible, is of purposeful intent and has an important mission to perform. Of course, it consists largely of play, and one of its chief ends is the providing of amusement. But preparation for this day of pleasure represents months of effort on the part of hundreds and thousands of children and adults, and a great many by-products have resulted which are of priceless value.

Take the schools for instance—that is, those that are fortunate enough to be under the leadership of a good teacher. In getting ready to play their part in the events of the day the pupils become more closely organized, work of all kinds has been better done, school spirit has been developed and physical health has been promoted by participation in games and athletics. The school has become socialized.

Then, too, at the festival the children may measure their accomplishments with those of children from other schools and find out just what are their strong and weak points.

Then later the effect on individual lives. Acquaintances formed on these occasions may be followed up by profitable correspondence, by exchanging visits and thus lead to the establishment of lifelong friendships. The names of those who excel in one sport or another become household words throughout the country. How this stimulates self-respect and ambition! The real leaders in each community become known, be they boys or girls, men or women, and these may be brought together thereafter for organized efforts in worthy enterprises for the common good. And all the time the isolation of country life is being lessened.

Again, how easily may new and desirable features be introduced into a school or a community by these festivals, and what an opportunity they



afford for getting children to do the old things in the spirit of a new comprehension and from a broader point of view. For instance, if play festivals become a permanent institution in a country and it is known that there will always be competitive athletics and games, then running and jumping, prisoner's base, relay races, and so on, will become permanent features in the physical lives of the children who are within the radius of the festival's influence. If on such days there are events which may be participated in by only boys' clubs, then boys' clubs can thereafter be easily organized and maintained with incalculable benefit throughout the year. If there is to be a competitive exhibit of home-made bread and cake in one of the booths on the festival grounds, then will it be easy to get the girls to give careful attention to the art of baking. If corn-judging or vegetable contest is to be held, then corn patches and home gardens will multiply and flourish. If an exhibit of photographs, programmes, and printed matter showing the operation of men's clubs, women's clubs, Bible study circles, or literary societies should be made, with an intelligent person at hand to answer questions and give explanations, then will such organizations be likely to make their appearance in one community after another throughout the county. If there is to be an exhibit of school work in one of the tents, then all through the year the children will give more attention to the three R's, while sewing, gardening, bench-work, carving, basketry, and art will find a deservedly prominent place in an increasing number of schools and homes.

Perhaps it is not too much to say that through a series of properly conceived and well-conducted festivals the civic and institutional life of an entire country or district, and the lives of many individuals of all ages, may be permanently quickened and inspired, the play movement thus making surely for greater contentment, cleaner morals, and more intense patriotism and righteousness on the farm lands and in the village populations of our country. Such, indeed, are the socializing effects of organized and supervised play.



## CIVIC ART AND COUNTRY LIFE

BY RICHARD B. WATROUS,  
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The expression "civic art" may not be, and is not, a misnomer as applied to country life, for, as now most used in the cities, it relates to that art which is to be an intimate everyday art in contributing to the structural beauty and efficiency of community life. Community life is not alone that of the great city or the small town, but of any group, however small and widely separated. A home far removed from other homes may be a part of a community, even if that community is an entire county. It is an integral part of some larger group and it has a relation to that group as a whole.

If it is worth while that there should be concert of action in the cities for the attainment of the beautiful, it is just as important that there should be the same effort by individuals and small groups of individuals in the country. That there is need for such effort in the cities calls for no argument, and that that need has been appreciated is evidenced by the marvelous growth of the civic improvement idea as illustrated during the past ten years, in particular, in cities and towns in all parts of America. There have been compelling influences in the cities for civic art which have been too powerful to resist. Where the race for commercial and industrial supremacy has been so keen that there has developed but slowly a realization of the importance of those things too frequently called purely aesthetic, there has been forced upon men and women the actual necessity of attention to the creation and maintenance of parks, of playgrounds for children and recreation areas for adults, of clean streets, of proper housing, of dignified public and private structures and of all those contributing agencies to an atmosphere that makes for health, happiness, good citizenship and material prosperity. Those cities that have neglected to provide these factors of community life are waking up to a full realization that they are falling behind in the striving for material development. They have discovered that there can be no efficient utility without corre-



sponding beauty. They go hand in hand and are inseparable. It may be that a pestilence of typhoid fever is the awakening agency to the need for cleanliness in municipal sanitary conditions and an awakening to a consciousness that polluted streams, dirty alleys and an absence of breathing spaces are causes of disease and death. It may be that a diminution of existing population or a falling off of that new population attracted to a properly organized and conducted community is the impulse for better conditions. Whatever the impulse, the issue is sure to result in a transformation from conditions ugly to those of beauty and sweetness. The banks of a river cleared because the drinking water has been contaminated, give way to river fronts that are utilized for parks and boulevards on the one hand and imposing business structures on the other hand. Both are equally important to the city that would be great in all respects.

It should follow that if the "City Beautiful," made so by the care of its citizens, is worth while, the "Country Beautiful" is just as worth while. Mother nature did well her part originally; foolish man has undone nature's work in the city and the country. The field for man's constructive and reconstructive labor is almost, if not fully, as broad in the country as in the city. The incentive may be even greater. First, because at present the drift of population is from the country to the city and it is essential that there go to the city men and women equipped at the start to take the part in those activities of the city that shall contribute to civic beauty. They should be teachers and not students. Second, there is the growing march "Back to Eden," and it is essential for more reasons than this article permits of enumeration, why that Eden should increasingly draw a larger and constantly larger population from the city. The city-bred man or woman, in particular the one who has lived in a community where attention has been given to art, is going to find that country life the most attractive that has surrounded itself with the largest measure of those refinements that contribute to happiness and culture. And this leads to a statement that there are material reasons why the rural dweller should be a part of every movement that proposes to improve his particular section of the country. It has been proved conclusively that painstaking care and large expenditures for art's sake have more than paid for themselves in the city. It may be equally true for the country. The commercial motive, however, is not, and should not



be, the great motive. The benefits from a material standpoint are but the corollaries of the other really valuable benefits. That they do follow cannot be overlooked.

Bearing in mind that civic art as most commonly used relates to the everyday surroundings, or what the everyday surroundings should be, what are some of the things that can be done in the country, such as are done in the city and how can they be done? With the importance of civic art established as of equal importance in the country as in the city, a comparison of the methods of attainment is natural and proper. Before pointing out the way to civic art the question arises, "Just what is civic art?" One writer says, "Art is the well-doing of what needs doing." Such a definition, of course, involves beauty. But beauty is not easily defined. Raymond Unwin, an English landscape architect, says of beauty, "It is an elusive quality, not always easily attained by direct effort and yet it is a necessary element in all good work, the crowning and completing quality. It is not a quality that can be put on from outside, but springs from the spirit of the artist infused into the work. We are too much in the habit of regarding art as something added from without, some species of expensive trimming put on. Civic art, the expression of civic life, is too often understood to consist in filling our streets with marble fountains, dotting our squares with groups of statuary, twining our lampposts with wriggling acanthus leaves or dolphins' tails, and our buildings with meaningless bunches of fruit and flowers tied up with impossible stone ribbons." William Morris said: "Beauty, which is what is meant by art, using the word in its widest sense, is, I contend, no mere accident of human life which people can take or leave as they choose, but a positive necessity of life, if we are to live as nature intended us to—that is, unless we are content to be less than men."

With the distinction, then, that art is not alone that which is found in the gallery or the studio, but the very expression of life in all its finer qualities, how may it be best expressed in the country? Surely there has seemed to be an absence of civic art in the rural sections just as there has been in the city. The older sections of the United States, the New England States, for instance, afford examples of a lack of expression of civic art, just as do many of the newer sections. The first expression of the instinct for improvement, for it must be conceded to be an instinct, though too often slow of



expression, is in and about the home. The rural home offers unlimited opportunities for improvement. Too often the only evidences of an habitation are the tools and implements of the farmer, scattered about his premises with little regard to orderliness and no attention to adornment, unless it be a tree here and there for shade, and the desire for shade may be one of utility without especial regard for beauty. The same spirit that has prompted hundreds of thousands of city dwellers to "clean up" their back yards and replace bare surfaces of ashes and other debris with growing grass, shrubs and flowers, may well extend to the rural home. The transformation of the country home from just an eating and sleeping place to a living place, by the introduction of home gardening, for the sake of gardening and its beauty, and not for its sustenance alone, will do wonders to keep the youth of those homes willing to grow up and abide in such an atmosphere. It will also check the progress of the men and women of those homes to the asylums which statistics show are largely filled with those whom the very monotony of the daily life of the farm has driven there. Each farmer's home may be an improvement society of itself and its object may be "to make home surroundings beautiful." Once the desire for beauty is firmly rooted, the possibilities for acquiring it are simpler than in the city, for the nearby woods may afford much of the equipment. It is not so necessary as in the city to go to the nurseryman and the florist, for nature has provided her stores near at hand. But the actual effort towards beauty must be exerted.

It is just as true in the country as in the city that man cannot live unto himself alone. He is his brother's keeper even if that brother lives a mile away and not just over the fence or porch railing, and to that extent there must be the united endeavor to create not alone the beautiful individual home surroundings, but a territorial or sectional improvement that shall be uniform and expressive of the best in all the life of that territory or section. The evidences of improvement should be revealed in continuous stretches and not in patches. For instance, the row of trees, and trees are just as beautiful in the country as in the city, should not stop with the yard limits. They should line the thoroughfares that lead to and from the town or market centers. Of especial importance is the embellishment of roadways. Not only are good roads necessary these days to make the carrying of farm produce eco-



nomical. Rural roads are being traveled over now more than ever before for pleasure, and that traffic will continue with the increased use of automobiles and the increase of wealth. Beautiful avenues are just as much a source of delight to the senses in the country as in the city. Reverting again to the material aspect of civic improvement, there can be no doubt that a county distinguished for its good roads and its beautiful roads draws to itself a traffic that is a source of profit. A section that is delightful and comfortable to pass through is surely a section that attracts newcomers as possible permanent residents, and some day they may be so many in number that there will grow up new communities, brought to the very doors of the farmers, because the people of the county have been enterprising enough to enhance the value of their holdings by attention to the finer things of life.

The same spirit that prompts the making of beautiful highways, for the sake of traffic, will do more than plant trees. It will keep the highways clean and smooth; it will spend money to keep them free of dust by the use of oil and water or both; it will smooth off the plots between the roadway and the fences, clear away fallen trees and debris. It will prevent the desecration of hillsides and rock exposures by unsightly outdoor advertising. It will even go so far as to unite in saying that board fences shall not be used to tell how many miles it is to the next clothing house or motion picture show. It will, however, recognize the demand of the traveler for guidance and information by erecting artistic signposts and guides. Some day when it is fully awake to its responsibilities it will pronounce against the unsightly telephone and telegraph posts that too frequently are permitted to mar the aspect of otherwise beautiful roadways even to the extent of cutting off the tops and branches of noble trees to make way for the wires. The telephone is a blessing to the rural district, but it does not need to be a blight to trees and to roadway beauty. One way to solve the telephone post problem, where the expense of underground installation is prohibitive, is to place the posts back from the road on private property, even if the companies do have to pay a nominal fee for so doing.

Cities are giving much attention to the adornment of triangles and squares formed by the junction of cross streets. The same possibilities exist in the rural districts. How much improved the



view might be if at the conjunction of roads a triangle, here and there, might be made a spot to pause at, for rest, yes, refreshment of the inner man and beast. On main traveled roads such triangles might be made to serve a very useful purpose for the installation of drinking fountains, the surroundings cleared and parked and speaking plainly that somewhere and by some one or some organized group advantage had been taken of an opportunity for the expression of civic art. Even country roads with the glories of nature visible everywhere may grow monotonous and the touch of man's hand be appreciated. Such triangles, shaped into order and beauty and so maintained, would speak in no indistinct tones for an awakened and ever-awake public spirit.

To attempt to enumerate all of the avenues that are open for definite civic endeavor in the country would take a volume in itself. Reference should be made, however, to the opportunities for the expression of civic art in the architecture of the rural structures with particular reference to the schoolhouses. A large movement is under way for better country schools, that is, schools that may stand out in the open as illustrations of what public edifices should be. It is not enough that there be four walls and a roof to house the children, wherein they may learn the three "R's." Not all the learning from schools is in the books. Nor is it enough to give the children books with pictures of the stately and dignified buildings of this and other countries. Their own schools should be examples to them, for their constant enjoyment and edification, of the best in architecture. No matter how limited the resources for the erection of the building, it should stand, when completed, as more than an illustration of the carpenter's work. It is always worth while to seek the counsel of experts for the execution of a public or community undertaking. Especially is it essential in erecting the buildings in which and about which the youth of the nation spend so many hours. Not only should the school building be a model of architecture, but its surroundings should be made attractive. Much of this attractiveness may be made possible by enlisting the activity of the children themselves. There should be frequent arbor days for the planting of trees about the grounds. And every provision should be made for play—directed play. The playground, so called, is by no means a crying need of the city. The country boys and girls need their playgrounds and they need play-



ground directors. One of the things we are learning well these days is that play is a most important factor in the life of the child and that he needs to be told how to play, whether of the city or the country. Next to the home the school should be the attractive congregating place of the rural districts, not alone for the children, but for the adults. Just as in the city there is a great forward movement for the utilization of the facilities of school buildings as social centers, so should the schools of the country be used. They should be erected with reference to public uses by the grown-ups, provided the building is large enough, with a hall that may accommodate meetings of the people for miles around who, when the civic improvement idea becomes well rooted, will need opportunities for assembling frequently to consider the things they ought to do and how best to do them. It must be remembered that not all town halls are accessible to the rural dweller. Usually, however, the public school is accessible to particular community groups. Considering art in its more limited aspects, there is a large opportunity for useful service by school buildings for the installation and display of traveling art exhibits. Several states have made possible the circulation of such exhibits, and when a quickened public sentiment demands them other states will follow the example. The art exhibit is not at all, of necessity, a city privilege.

How may these benefits that result from concert of action be effected in the rural districts? In many ways; possibly not in so many ways as in the city, where, in addition to the scores of women's clubs and civic leagues, there are boards of trade and other organizations to father and carry forward public undertakings. In the country there is the necessity of falling back more on the individual effort than the collective. But the individual need not work out alone and unaided his methods of procedure. He can call to his aid the experience of the men and women of the cities, through affiliation with national and local organizations that exist for the purpose of inspiring and assisting such improvement effort. In addition to these organizations there are the magazines and newspapers that are nowadays so rich in contents relating to definite things that may be done for home, neighborhood and town adornment. And in addition to these agencies should be mentioned the great service that federal and state departments of agriculture are giving with particular reference to the actual and intimate life of



the country. The day has passed when the well-organized state departments of agriculture confine their beneficent service to telling how to get the best crops from the soil. They are giving, as they should, much attention to the problem of making the life of the country an attractive life. Several of the state agricultural colleges are holding midsummer conferences devoted to a discussion of civics as well as planting and reaping. The harvest from such conferences is almost as valuable as the harvests of the soil, for they are to yield an enlightened citizenship and a cultured citizenship which, when it blossoms to its fullest, will free not only the country, but the cities of many of the administrative diseases that now exist because of ignorance and blindness as to the really good and true things of life.

But there are, even in the distinctly rural districts, opportunities for collective endeavor, and they are being utilized to a gratifying degree. The Grange grows continually in its service to the people as an institution from which there may proceed united action. The church is realizing its opportunity and is opening its doors on week-days as well as Sundays for the holding of meetings to consider community improvement, of a kind that produces direct results. Few sections of this country are now so sparsely settled that it is not possible to organize and maintain, usefully, some kind of a civic improvement league or society. There should be a great era of organization of such societies, for through them can be effected the things necessary to be done to bring about a harmony of treatment of thoroughfares, a recognition of the value of good architectural effects in the country school, the wise provision of playground areas, of children's gardens, the best direction of tree planting and care and almost countless other things that are too often left unattended to because no one or no group of people make it a business to see that what is necessary to be done is done. Town boards, like city councils, if not prodded by their constituents, are too likely to do only the things that it has been the habit to do for years past. These are new days—"The old order has changed," as William Allen White says. It is necessary that there be organizations and organizations, and then organizations, to constantly suggest new things, and new expenditures, too, for these new things involve expenditure, but expenditure that is worth while. There may be commissions on country life—would that there were more



and that their service might be uninterrupted—but back of them and inviting their aid must be the rural demand, expressed through some kind of an organization or many organizations.

When, in the country and in the city, the people, all the people, awake to the realization of what Professor Lethaby says, that "Art is the well-doing of what needs doing," will we have a rural and an urban development that may truly be said to express real civic art. Then, and then only, will be made possible, easily, great state and national undertakings, such as transcontinental highways and vast park areas under national and state supervision. States will respond quickly to the call for state recreation areas; the federal government will open the way for a larger and more comprehensive development and administration of its national parks and scenic wonders. Selfish and unreasonable demands of commerce will give way, without resistance, to the demands of the people for the preservation of such glorious possessions as Niagara Falls and art will be the national and everyday expression that it naturally should be.



## INFLUENCES EXERTED BY AGRICULTURAL FAIRS<sup>1</sup>

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### *Introduction*

Now that the better utilization of organized agencies for the improvement of agriculture is being generally considered, attention is naturally directed to the county fair association as a force which, if properly directed and developed, might be of great service, since it provides a local agency in each county that is directly interested in the development of the agriculture of that particular county and possesses the requisite legal power to act in directions that it may deem best for accomplishing its purposes. There are over 1,200 county fair associations in the United States, with a registered membership of approximately 250,000. Their annual gross receipts amount to about \$6,500,000, and their expenditures for premiums to almost \$2,500,000.

An investigation in 1910 by the farmers' institute specialist of the Office of Experiment Stations into the operations of the county fair associations of the United States shows that there were 1,203 of these associations in existence in 1909. Replies to inquiries were received from 465 of these organizations, or 38.65 per cent of the whole number, representing thirty-seven states.

The registered membership of the associations reporting was 95,321, and the total attendance in 1909 was 6,103,227. The total receipts were:

From gate receipts	\$1,331,594.09
From concessions	394,081.75
From county appropriations	23,270.38
From state appropriations	273,327.52
From other sources	503,476.31
Total	\$2,525,750.05

<sup>1</sup> This article is a reprint of a portion of Circular No. 100, Office of Experiment Stations, United States Department of Agriculture.



These associations offered in premiums \$1,226,214.18, and paid in premiums in 1909, \$994,265.26. If the remaining 61.35 per cent of the whole number of associations not reporting average in attendance, receipts, premiums offered and paid equally with the 38.65 per cent reporting, the total for the entire 1,203 societies would be, in membership, 246,600; attendance, 15,791,000; gross income, \$6,534,900; amount paid in premiums, \$2,572,400.

Reports were also received from eighteen state associations, holding fairs in 1909, as follows:

Total attendance .....	1,490,029
<hr/>	
Income from—	
Gate receipts .....	\$630,554
Concessions .....	193,200
State appropriations .....	361,214
Other sources .....	244,114
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Total .....	\$1,429,082

The amount offered in premiums by these state fair associations in 1909 was \$367,809. The amount paid in premiums was \$270,187.

#### *Present Need for Efficient Local Agricultural Associations*

That need exists for proper local associations to aid in the improvement of rural conditions is admitted by all who have studied the country problem.

There is, first of all, the great fundamental need of increasing production. This of itself is sufficient reason for the existence of organizations in each county to give intelligent attention to soils, fertilizers, animals, crops, tillage, moisture supply, drainage, seed selection, fruit culture, the farm wood lot, and the many other items directly affecting agricultural production.

Then there is the need for the improvement of the highways, the consolidation of rural schools, the adaptation of the courses of study in these schools to country life, the betterment of agricultural homes and their surroundings, the economical marketing of products and purchasing of farm supplies, etc.

Agricultural educational institutions, particularly the agricultural colleges and experiment stations, are looking for more efficient means for reaching country people with agricultural information,



and now that extension departments are being organized in all of these colleges, the need for efficient local institutions in each county to act as centers from which to operate is very apparent. The county fair associations are already organized as public agencies for the dissemination of agricultural information, and it is only necessary to strengthen their organization and work in order to give them a larger and more important place in our rapidly developing system of agricultural education.

The county fair has already been found to be a most valuable assistant to the agricultural college and experiment station wherever its services have been utilized, and the college in turn has greatly strengthened the fair association through its support in furnishing educational exhibits and skilled demonstrators and judges at the annual shows, and by setting a high standard along all lines for rural betterment.

In response to inquiries sent out to the agricultural colleges and experiment stations of the United States it is found that out of forty-seven states and territories reporting, thirteen colleges and five stations sent separate exhibits to state or county fairs in 1908, and that eighteen other colleges and stations united their material into joint exhibits and sent them to state or county fairs. Many of these collections were very elaborate, including beef and dairy cattle, swine, sheep, poultry, fruits, vegetables, forestry products, nursery stock, models of farm buildings, samples of cakes, bread, canned and dried fruits, preserves, pickles, samples of needle work, exhibits of stenographic work, typewriting, samples of business letters, examination papers, charts; also specimens of feeds and forage crops, model dairy plans, plans for model farms, specimens of insects and fungus growths, tables giving the composition and yields of various crops, samples of soils, spraying apparatus; forge, lathe, and hand work in wood and metal, and similar articles exhibiting the character of the educational work of the institution. These exhibits were in charge of expert demonstrators to explain their characteristics and reply to inquiries respecting the work of the college or station. One institution had nine demonstrators at a single fair. In all cases the exhibits were of an educational character, and of use in teaching the subjects of agriculture, domestic science, or mechanic arts.

Farming people particularly were interested in these exhibits



and their appreciation and value have been such as to prompt the college authorities to continue and enlarge them. The colleges and stations were represented during that year at one hundred and one fairs, being limited in the number only by the amount of money available for bearing the expense.

Among the advantages claimed by the institutions from their exhibitions at these fairs are:

(1) Opportunity to meet farmers personally and explain the work of the institution.

(2) Opportunity to secure co-operators in demonstration work.

(3) Opportunity for the college to conduct agricultural schools and short courses and demonstrations while the exhibition is in progress.

(4) Opportunity to initiate new movements for the improvement of agriculture.

(5) Opportunity for the education of fair managers in the conduct of agricultural exhibitions.

(6) Opportunity for collecting into one place the results of field demonstrations for the inspection of the public.

(7) Providing a place for the exhibition of the results of contest work by school children and country youth.

(8) Enabling the college and station to secure the names and addresses of representative farmers and of young people with whom to correspond in disseminating agricultural information, and in securing co-operation in projects for rural improvement.

#### *The Fair Redirected and Enlarged*

All that the present fair association needs for immediate action in the wider field now open is a change of view as to its mission and scope and a practical plan for carrying on its work. Its activities need to be redirected and enlarged to fit the association to take advantage of the opportunities for aiding rural betterment that lie before it. If it is to be a leader in rural betterment its organization and methods must be carefully outlined in advance to be in accord with the conditions that control success in such enterprises. As careful a study should be made by the management, of the needs of farming people as well as of their peculiarities and temperament, as if those interested in the fair were about to invest in a department store or engage in the manufacture on a large scale of an article or articles intended for general use.



The fair even if assisted by the state will be largely dependent upon public patronage for its success. If public patronage is to be secured and held the fair as a whole must be made sufficiently interesting to attract those whose presence is desired. In doing this it can not descend to the use of low or questionable methods or to cheap, vulgar, or tawdry shows no matter how great the crowd these may draw or how remunerative they may be. Its attractions must be of a character that will elevate and instruct, or if for entertainment the exhibition must be free from everything that suggests evil, ridicules purity, or tends to deceive, defraud, or vulgarize the public.

The fair that is to be a worthy leader and is to meet the needs of country people must be strong, clean, full of interest, well managed, and in entire sympathy with country life. It must first of all and above all be loyal to its own constituency, the agricultural public, and not be swerved from serving them in the most effective way by any influence or set of influences that it may encounter, however enticing.

#### *Exhibits*

The fair in its main feature is an exhibition. Its character is therefore determined almost entirely by the grade and variety of the articles that it displays. Since its main purpose is to improve rural life in all of its phases, the exhibits should be of a kind that will contribute to that end. The basis, therefore, of the fair should be exhibits from the farm, the garden, the wood lot, horticultural exhibits, household exhibits, poultry, domestic animals, agricultural implements and machinery, models of country homes with sanitary surroundings and modern conveniences, forest products, manufactured articles, and educational exhibits of methods, courses of study, school buildings and grounds, and school gardens adapted to rural conditions.

The entries for premiums should be open to individuals, to institutions, and to communities. A brief statement made out upon a card should be attached to each exhibit showing by whom it is exhibited, the feature it is intended to display, with such additional information as may be important to a proper understanding and appreciation of its use and economic value.

Each class of exhibits should be set up by an expert and be attended by some one capable of explaining the quality and uses



of the several articles in his section. Whenever possible the exhibitor of the article or animal should be present in person during the fair and call attention to the valuable features of the things that he is exhibiting. If samples only are shown of larger quantities on hand for sale, they should be accompanied by a statement of the quantity that is thus available and the price, with a guarantee that the goods to be delivered shall be true to sample.

### *Judging*

The judging for premiums ought to be by disinterested experts, and every award should be accompanied with a statement showing why it was given, and the judges should be ready to make a public defense, if called upon, in support of their conclusions. The state department of agriculture might have lists of persons on file certified as capable judges in the various groups of exhibits, who would be available for service at county fairs at a stated compensation.

### *Demonstrations*

Certain stated periods each day should be devoted to demonstrations to be held at different places on the grounds. These demonstrations might be the packing of fruit; the use of the Babcock test; spraying operations, including the mixing of sprays, as well as their application; killing, dressing, and packing poultry for market; sanitary handling of milk; transplanting, budding, and pruning trees; seed selection; germination tests; laying out and planting garden plats; stock judging; canning, preserving, and drying fruits; cheese making; butter making; testing agricultural machinery; disinfecting rooms, stables, and clothing; conducting cooking schools, dressmaking and millinery schools; demonstration plat work; plowing matches, and similar contests.

These demonstrations can be made valuable features of the fair depending upon the skill of those in charge of them. Machinery in motion, processes in course of performance, and other forms of effort in actual operation attract attention and are never-failing sources of interest.

By stopping all other exercises and concentrating attention upon the demonstration features for an hour or two each day, variety will be given to the exhibition, and valuable information can be imparted free from interruption or distraction by other exercises.



*Contests*

Contests in crop production, animal breeding and feeding, and other agricultural operations should be organized early in the year, the results to be exhibited at the fair. Persons entering such contests should be required to declare in advance their intention to compete, in order to shut out crops or animals that are the result not of skill but of mere accident or chance.

In all such contests accurate data should accompany each report showing the items of cost in producing the article and the methods pursued. The premiums offered should be for results secured under conditions possible to every farmer of intelligence, and be for operations above those on a miniature scale. To exhibit ten ears of corn out of a crop of forty acres is no evidence of superior farming, but to exhibit ten superior acres out of such an area is a real test of skill and worthy of proper recognition. For persons in control of farms the contests should be in operations of sufficient size to require the exercise of more than ordinary exertion and skill. For boys and girls they could be adapted to suit the means at their command.

*Entertainments and Amusements*

Trials of speed, acrobatic and sleight-of-hand performances, exhibitions of trained animals, moving pictures, the merry-go-round, military drill, games of ball, foot races, and other athletic sports, balloon ascensions, and similar entertainments are all unobjectionable when properly controlled, and provide entertainment to those who come to spend an idle hour. They should, however, not be permitted to interfere with the main exhibition and the more serious purposes of the fair. The association must first of all be loyal to the industry that it represents. To insure this its entertainments should be restricted to certain hours, and when presented opportunity should be given to all to witness and to enjoy them.

All disreputable shows, gambling devices, and loud coarse fakirs with monstrosities to exhibit, should be rigidly excluded from the grounds. Nothing that the most refined and modest woman might not see or hear should be admitted. All others ought to be shut out as unworthy of a place in a self-respecting community, and the superintendent of this department should be held to



strict accountability for the enforcement of this rule, and an adequate police force should be at his disposal for the purpose.

The expenses attendant upon the presentation of the open air entertainment features of the fair could be met by the fair association, and for this a specific appropriation might be made. Such in-door sports or entertainments as the merry-go-round, moving pictures, animal exhibits, and sleight-of-hand performances, can be permitted to charge an entrance fee, the amount to be agreed upon with the managers of the fair.

#### *State and County Aid*

An assured income is a necessity if the fair is to do its work efficiently and expand as the needs of the country develop. State or county aid, or both, is essential in any system of fair organization that is to serve the people and improve their methods. The lack of such an income is responsible for the presence of most of the objectionable features admitted to fairs at present, and for the consequent loss by the fair both of prestige and support by farming people. The management must be independent of need of the money that fakirs and gamblers offer for the privilege of swindling visitors.

Grants of money to the fair association by the county or the state are therefore a necessity without which the best and most useful type of the fair can not exist. These grants should be carefully guarded so as to stimulate and not enfeeble effort on the part of local people, and to insure that the funds are not used in promoting worthless projects or visionary schemes. The representatives of the state boards of agriculture appointed to see to the proper conduct of the county fair should also be charged with making inquiry into its use of the public funds, and if these are squandered or used in violation of law, subsequent appropriations should be withheld until the portions so misused shall have been refunded to the state or county and satisfactory assurance given that future grants will be properly expended.

#### *Premiums*

The character of the premiums awarded may vary indefinitely, and be in the form of cash, medals, certificates, or other recognition of merit according to the importance of the display and its



place in rural industry. The award should be for excellence, and no matter how many articles are exhibited in a class or how few, no premium should be given unless deserved.

The competition is not so much with others as with excellence. The exhibits, therefore, should be rated and the award made as this is approached. Accordingly, for the information of competitors, there should be published with each class of exhibits the requirements that will be considered by the judges, and as far as possible the percentage for each requirement as it enters into the make-up of a standard article or animal in that class.

Special premiums should be offered for new methods, or for new plants, animals, or implements introduced and of superior excellence. Similar special premiums should be offered for successful farms, for special crops, or for herds of animals reared by the owner on any farm, and for superior orchards and gardens; for school buildings, including also churchyards, country cemeteries, and other items that can not be shown at the fair, but are worthy of special recognition as evidences of intelligent treatment or marked success.

#### *Water Supply*

An abundant supply of wholesome water is most important, and the fair grounds should not be located where this can not be had. Where connection with a town water system is not possible a reservoir supplied either from springs or from a well is a necessity. The pumping engine should be of sufficient capacity to throw a large quantity of water in case of fire or other emergency.

#### *Season for Holding Fairs*

Successful fairs are being held at all seasons of the year—midwinter, spring, midsummer, and autumn—depending upon the object to be attained and the accommodations. The midwinter fair must, of necessity, be indoors. For this, closed and heated accommodations must be provided sufficient for the exhibits and for the visitors who attend. The exhibits at the winter fair are usually confined to live stock, seeds, grains, poultry, florist's plants, and exhibits along the lines of domestic science and household art. Those in the spring show implements, machinery, nursery stock, vegetable seeds, hotbed plants, fertilizers, dairy and creamery products, household furniture, and samples of grain, such as wheat, rye,



barley, oats, corn, clover, and timothy seeds for spring planting, exhibited as specimens of larger quantities held in store for sale.

The summer fairs exhibit the products of agriculture of the season, as summer fruits, garden vegetables, grain and forage crops, live stock and poultry, household articles, manufactures, agricultural implements and machinery, samples of grains for autumn seeding, berries, school gardens, forest plantations, model samples of school grounds, experiment plats, seed testing on trial plats, stock judging, testing dairy cows, and similar exhibits. The summer fair partakes largely of the nature of a harvest-home picnic or summer outing, and includes lectures and addresses by eminent agriculturists and others interested in rural betterment.

The autumn fairs are held in most of the states in the months of September and October, and comprise a collection of the products of the year. They are the principal fairs of the season.

#### *Paid Secretary*

If the fair association is to fulfill its mission, its influence will have to be felt for more than the few days during which the exhibition is held. It will have to be an active force the year round. Before this can be done there must be a paid secretary who can devote all of his time to the affairs of the association. The secretary should be an expert in agricultural matters and not a mere clerk with little or no practical or theoretical knowledge of this industry.

#### *How Shall County Fair Associations Be Induced to Undertake This Work*

Many associations are now ready for what has been here outlined, and will be glad to undertake the work if a practicable plan is shown. Others will need urging. This will require the personal efforts of organizers to meet their managers and show them precisely how they can do at least some of the things that are needed, leaving the others, if necessary, for future consideration after the movement is well under way.

Responsibility for and the initiative in this work might be given to the state boards and departments of agriculture. Agents could be employed by them to visit the several counties to organize new fair associations, and to reorganize the old. Later, these



agents should revisit the societies to see that they understand what is proposed and to assist them when necessary in carrying out the project. This is a kind of service that the State departments of agriculture are specially fitted to undertake, and, in securing valuable results to agriculture, is as promising a field of effort as any other that they have hitherto attempted.

Most of the state departments or boards of agriculture have interested themselves in the local fair associations very little beyond collecting copies of their premium lists and getting records of attendance and the amount of the gate receipts. If they will devote some of their time and money to sending out an expert or several experts to organize county fairs and to advise with their officers and aid them in carrying on their work, they will not only be increasing their usefulness to the farming industry, but their action will also be in direct keeping with the purpose of the Commonwealth in establishing state departments for the benefit of agriculture.



## THE CHAUTAUQUA MOVEMENT

BY PAUL M. PEARSON,

Professor of Public Speaking, Swarthmore College.

The special summer assembly organized by Bishop John H. Vincent, to which he gave the name "Chautauqua," has not only grown to nearly a thousand summer gatherings bearing that name, but the features of these meetings have become varied and inclusive. Bible study and recreation, which characterized the early years at Chautauqua, New York, are the features dominating a dozen or so of the present-day assemblies, Chautauqua Institution (the official name of the present Chautauqua), Winona Lake, Indiana; Mt. Gretna, Pennsylvania; Old Salem and Quiver Lake, Illinois; Ottawa and Winfield, Kansas, and some others. At a larger number, recreation is featured, Bible study is given more or less emphasis, while music, literature, travel, economics and various other subjects are presented in classes, or the emphasis is given to popular lectures and concerts. These are resort Chautauquas, where people spend a few days or weeks in study and recreation. Chautauqua Institution easily leads all others. There the summer population reaches more than twenty thousand; the session lasts from late June until early September; and the program of lectures, concerts, recreation and study includes everything that earnest people may want. Other summer assemblies, like Winona Lake, Indiana; Bay View, Michigan; Monteagle, Tennessee, have an attendance of many thousands and are doing a great and important work in popular adult education.

The resort Chautauquas are perhaps only one in twenty of the total number of assemblies that have appropriated the name. While the attendance at resort Chautauquas is largely from smaller towns, yet these do not influence rural communities as do the local Chautauquas. For the most part local Chautauquas are held for a short period, seldom less than six days, and never more than three weeks, the average being probably ten days. They are held in towns of from 500 to 20,000 inhabitants, but in few cases would the Chautauquas be possible without the support of the farmers, who are counted



on to drive in in such numbers as to make the Chautauqua a financial success.

A large tent generally serves as an audience room, though in an increasing number may be found a steel structure with open sides called a Chautauqua auditorium. Few of the local Chautauquas have campers, the audience being recruited from the farmers who drive in, the housewives who cut short their daily routine, and the business men who leave, and in many towns close their places of business for some hours each day to attend the sessions. In only a small percentage of these assemblies is there any attempt at class instruction. Where such is given, it generally includes domestic science, arts and crafts, needle work, Bible study, or the Round Table, identified with the work of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

The platform program of lectures, music and entertainment is the one feature of the Chautauqua idea which has been included in several hundred summer assemblies that are called Chautauquas. Some amusement parks have adopted the name, some committees use the name for a variety program which is more like cheap vaudeville, but even in these ignorant and misdirected efforts, Chautauqua stands for an attempt for community betterment. The results in most cases are immediate and far reaching. To understand this, we have only to note the conditions. People generally sit in audiences where their coming together gives them a label. They are Methodist or Baptist or Democrats or Republicans and they listen only to speakers who believe as they do. At the Chautauqua, however, they sit together as a community and listen to Methodists, Baptists, Catholics, Democrats, Republicans—men of any creed or party, who come because of their message, who come not because of their identification with a sect or party, but because they have something which the community as a whole wishes to hear. On the same program may be heard an admonition that the country should prepare for war, and an equally emphatic denunciation of the waste in preparing for war. One speaker may advocate a plan for economic betterment which a few days later another speaker will stoutly oppose. Sectarian and partisan presentations are not permitted, but religious, political and sociological discussion is welcomed. The effect on the community is that the listeners challenge what every speaker says and challenge their own ready-made or



inherited beliefs. Progressive ideas in religion, education, politics and business inevitably follow.

By its organization the Chautauqua is calculated to make the deepest impression on the community. It is widely and persistently advertised: a large number of season tickets are sold in advance; the price of admission to the holder of a season ticket is seldom more, generally less, than ten cents for each event on the program. There is a musical prelude before every lecture, so that the audience is made more impressionable. Sessions are held afternoon and evening, by which continual coming and going the crowd spirit is aroused, and those who early in the week were indifferent yield to the desire to do what their neighbors are doing. In these and other ways is the audience rendered suggestible. The lecturers who address these audiences speak with authority, either such authority as continued advertising may give them, or the authority which attaches to being much in the public prints. Given a suggestible audience and a lecturer who speaks with authority, the result upon the community is immediate, notable and more or less lasting.

How much the rural communities support the Chautauquas may be understood from a few figures. In Nebraska, with sixty-one towns having a population of a thousand or more, there are fifty-five Chautauquas. Iowa, an agricultural state, has nearly two hundred Chautauquas. Thus far in their development the local Chautauquas have been established almost entirely in agricultural communities. Illinois has nearly two hundred, Kansas has about fifty, Missouri as many more, Oklahoma a dozen, and the rural communities of Indiana and Ohio are organizing a number each year. During the coming summer nearly a hundred Chautauquas will be held in towns with an average population of five hundred.

When the camp-meeting began to lose its hold with the people, Bishop Vincent greatly extended the scope of instruction offered, added entertainment and recreation to the plan and inaugurated the Chautauqua idea. Like the idea which it supplanted, the Chautauqua is supported largely by the rural community.

The immediate effect of the Chautauqua upon rural life must be positive. Not only in the local Chautauqua, a movement in the smaller towns where the farmers' families are depended on for support, but at many of the Chautauquas, farmers pay the largest percentage of the gate receipts. At one Illinois town with a population



of 463 where the price of a season ticket was a dollar, the receipts were nearly \$800.00. In another with a population of 370 the receipts were \$632.00. At Rockport, Missouri, and Clarinda, Iowa, for example, it is not uncommon to see from 500 to 1,000 buggies, carriages and automobiles at the Chautauqua grounds. Lincoln Park Chautauqua is several miles from the little town of Cawker City, Kansas, with no means of transportation except private conveyances. The constituency is almost entirely from the farms within twenty miles. Yet few audiences there number less than a thousand people, and at times there have been as many as ten thousand people on the grounds. Camargo, Illinois, with similar conditions, has had even larger crowds on the grounds. Possibly the most notable Chautauqua of this type is Old Salem, on the farm where was located the grocery store in which Lincoln clerked. The president of the board of directors and the most active man in the management is a farmer. The grounds and improvements on the banks of the Sangamon River represent an investment of fifty thousand dollars. Here are a few cottages, but most of the people tent during the three weeks' session. They drive in from their farms with wagon loads of camp furniture and provisions, send the teams home by the farm hands, and stay to enjoy the varied program. The tenting population has not for years been below a thousand, while it oftener reaches twenty-five hundred people. Besides those who tent, hundreds drive in every day, and on special days the crowd is increased to ten or fifteen thousand people.

Farmers are the largest and most attentive portion of the audience when men of the type of William Jennings Bryan, Robert M. La Follette and Richmond Pearson Hobson speak. But the special features on the Chautauqua program which deal definitely with farm life are increasing in number and popularity. Farmers eagerly listen to Professor Holden talk on corn and soil, or D. Ward King explain the split-log drag method of road making.

Whether from the country or from the town, the audience soon becomes impatient with anything technical or academic, or with an inexperienced speaker, and quickly avails itself of the open-sided tents or auditoriums to make their escape. But, with a skilled speaker, they will sit for an hour or two, apparently unmindful of the intense heat or the uncomfortable benches.

At scores of Chautauquas in Iowa, Missouri, Illinois and Kan-



sas there has been introduced in recent years special instruction in stock judging, soil and seed testing. This is generally given at a morning hour, for smaller groups, when object lessons are offered by professors from the state agricultural colleges. In a few places, notably Clarinda, Iowa, boys' corn clubs have been formed, and similar clubs for girls. These young people have separate camps on the grounds, where they have their own co-operative organizations for helping with the cooking, waiting on tables and where they carry out a specially arranged program of sports, and work in stock judging, seed testing, or household economics. At Clarinda, last summer, more than two hundred boys and girls from the country were enrolled in these clubs.

The popularity of the county fair less than a generation ago is now enjoyed by the local Chautauqua in these middle western states. One has but to attend a fair and a Chautauqua to be impressed with the difference of outlook offered by each. To illustrate: A certain Iowa town is said to conduct the best fair in the state, with the exception of that held at the state capital. Twenty-five cents admitted the visitor to the grounds, where he might see a half dozen exhibits of improved farm machinery, demonstrated by the manufacturers, and less than a hundred entries for prizes in needle work, baking and preserving. Farther on were a score of tents with freaks and fakes, to each of which an admission fee of only five or ten cents was charged, so the score of noisy barkers shrieked. There were a dozen soft drink, confection and lunch concessions, each with a leathern-lunged barker. For an additional fee of twenty-five cents, the visitor was admitted to the grandstand to see the races. Here a dozen venders made their way among the seats, lustily shouting their wares. At every step the visitor was importuned to spend money. On the street at night, was a free open-air, hair-raising exhibition, and innumerable noisy venders. So far as the visitor could see, the fair had brought to town race-track followers, freak exhibitors, and many persons with ingenious schemes of varying degrees of honesty or dishonesty for separating people from their money.

Three weeks, later, on the same grounds, was held a Chautauqua which offered an eight days' program, including more than thirty events, for two dollars and a half. On the program was excellent vocal and orchestral music, two of the leading political



speakers of the country, a\* famous preacher, a half dozen clean entertainments, and much more that a discerning committee of men who were interested in the uplift of the community could provide. The attitude of the management was to give all it could to the community. There were no extra fees, no attempt to get money from the visitor after he entered the grounds, there was no noise, no questionable characters in evidence. The Chautauqua was simply the organized best element of the community expressing itself.



## THE TRAMP PROBLEM

BY O. F. LEWIS,

General Secretary, Prison Association of New York.

What we in the United States need to do first with the tramp problem is to wake up. We have dealt with it too long as we do with a disagreeable visit to the dentist, that ought to be paid but is not.

We have a rural tramp problem and a city vagrancy problem. Let us first take up the general question. Tramps don't tramp very much; they ride. The railroads are the best and the worst friends of the tramps; best, because, as Josiah Flynt has said, they enable the man who begs from you on the streets of New York on Monday to accost you on the streets of Chicago on Saturday; worst, because the railroads are the severest prosecutors of the tramps.

The tramp problem is both easy and hard to understand. Easy, because it is easy to understand what makes tramps; hard, because it is hard to know how to deal with the products of the causes, or with the causes themselves. Because it is easy to get rid of an individual tramp, and so hard to handle rationally a group of tramps, the almost overpowering tendencies of individuals and communities are to do as the man did with the dead cat:—throw it into his neighbor's yard, from which it, in turn, progressed through other yards until it arrived again in the yard of the original neighbor.

There is much unclear thinking about tramps. The bulk of people probably do not know what they mean when they talk about tramps. Some of them have learned about tramps from funny papers; some from the stranger in the street; some from having their summer cottages robbed or burned; some from being on boards of managers of hospitals that give costly free treatment to worthless outcasts. Charitable societies, missions, city lodging houses, courts and prisons have all dealt with, and do deal with, the "hobo." When the solution of a problem is hard and costly and perhaps useless in the end, it is apt to be side-tracked. Thus it is with the related problems of inebriety and vagrancy.



Yet in the United States census of 1904 it was shown that drunkenness ranked first among the causes of commitment to penal institutions in the United States, and that vagrancy ranked second. Between them they caused 43 per cent of the commitments in the year 1904. That is a costly price to pay for neglect to solve, if possible, the problems of drink and voluntary idleness.

I do not wish to lead the readers of this journal again through the array of well-known or widely announced facts and opinions regarding the extent, the costliness and the futility of vagrancy and the tramp-evil. Since we are a nation of newspaper readers, it must be familiar news to us that the railroads report that in the aggregate they lose at least \$25,000,000 a year through railroad vagrancy; that there are perhaps a half million tramps in the United States; that their paths lead like cow tracks all over their rich pastures, the states of the Union; that they are in general a most unproductive and most disagreeable group; that they cost charitable and correctional institutions and organizations millions a year to take care of them; that they corrupt the young and rob the older; that they disseminate disease, perpetrate and encourage crime, and maintain indecent standards of living.

I would point out, first, some movements toward a reduction of vagrancy, and secondly, some vitally necessary things that have not yet been undertaken. First and foremost, we must deal with the tramp-evil along broad and national lines, probably not by federal laws, but through state laws and with the keen sense of the national character of the problem. Our methods must be tested, not primarily by the question whether they will rid the particular community of tramps, but whether they will, when adopted in general by other communities, tend successfully to reduce vagrancy and its attendant evils.

First then, I cite the agitation for farm colonies for tramps and vagrants. New York State established, in 1911, a board of managers of such a compulsory farm colony, "for the detention, humane discipline, instruction and reformation of male adults committed thereto as tramps and vagrants." This is an experiment, brought to its present stage by a strong group of social workers in New York who have become sick and tired of the palliative and trivial treatment of the tramp-evil in the past. The colony will have not less than five hundred acres; will be probably from fifty



to one hundred miles from New York City; will receive persons on indeterminate sentences of a maximum of eighteen months, except such as since arriving at the age of sixteen have been committed to a penal institution. The colony will probably be largely upon the cottage plan, and will maintain a system of marks and merits, privileges and deprivations, and a system of parole.

What will be the result? Prophecy is dangerous. It is believed that the best weapon with which to fight vagrancy is compulsory work, just as there is nothing like water with which to fight a large fire, although chemicals may suffice with small blazes. Wherever work is announced at workhouses, jails, almshouses and other institutions and organizations, the attendance of the loafing vagrant falls off. Wherever in cities the mendicancy squads are active and persistent, the city is to an extent relieved of the influx of the panhandler and the whining, shuffling man who has work to go to on Monday.

The farm colony will combine compulsory work with a long enough term of imprisonment, even under restricted liberty, to make the predatory vagrant careful about travelling through the state or seeming to be for a considerable time without employment. And I would say here that the law expressly states that the colony is not meant for "reputable workmen, temporarily out of work and seeking employment." The courts will be notified by the board of managers of the colony, when it is ready to receive inmates, that the colony is meant not for those tramps who can be readily swung back into industrial life and self-support, but for those "customers," as the Germans call them, who have purposely and persistently defied the efforts of the law and of the community to make them decent citizens.

Hence, it is reasonable to expect that the total number of vagrants in the state will be reduced. "But," says the inhabitant of New Jersey, "you are simply throwing the tramps into New Jersey and Connecticut." True; but the advice of New York will be that both New Jersey and Connecticut establish farm colonies. Then, in two ways, the deterrent influence of the colony will be more or less potent. For those who pass through the colony, the idea of giving another year or more to the service of the state at hard work, if again convicted of vagrancy, will not be agreeable. For those who have shunned the colony by staying in another state, the deterrent effect of the New York colony is obvious.



In short, the farm colony is simply typical of what in general the method must be of counteracting vagrancy. The tramp is the most volatile of all dependents or delinquents. Pages of proof can be presented of this fact, and perhaps most striking of all would be the facts gathered from juvenile institutions.

Will the colonies reform the shiftless, work-shy tramp? Probably not to any great extent. In individual cases, yes. But I am firmly of the opinion that to reduce vagrancy we need to employ strong and persistent corrective measures. I have this last summer visited the leading labor colonies of Belgium, Holland and Germany. Everywhere the testimony is the same, although some of the colonies have been in existence nearly one hundred years. The vagrant on the other side of the water is, in four cases out of five, a repeater, not permanently reclaimable. The great service rendered by foreign compulsory labor colonies is that they act as segregating centers for the half-efficient and intentionally idle, and as a deterrent for those who can foresee that a life of vagrancy will mean frequent compulsory segregation in the colonies. The European countries would not think of giving up the forced labor colonies, but they do not make claims that they are reformatories. We in the United States must not allow ourselves to hail the new farm colonies as reformatories or as strong factors in the elimination of the tramp. I have no belief at all that the tramp can be eliminated so long as the world takes summer vacations, and rich people follow their bent and go to Florida in the winter, and so long as Cook's tours find a justification for being. The tramp has the same desires, but not the same means. Being without means, he tramps, or, as I have already said, he rides.

This leads to the second point. We must bend our best energies to the reduction of railway trespass. I believe no one wishes this reduction so much as the railways themselves, for they are the chief sufferers. Where the individual community suffers somewhat, the long trunk lines suffer grievously. Apart from the hundreds of thousands of dollars lost by our great railways, the lives of trainmen are frequently imperilled. A state of warfare exists between the trainmen in general and the tramps in general, although exceptions to the "state of war" exist, of course.

What are the results of railway trespass? First, the loss to the railroads in property destroyed, stations burned, obstructions



placed on tracks, signals tampered with, lives lost, persons injured—and, indeed, the not infrequent suits that are brought by tramps themselves for injuries sustained while riding, or while walking on the railroad.

Then also the cost to the community. Railroads will literally "dump" a group of tramps upon a village or a town. The village reasons with justice that since the railroad gives, therefore let the railroad take away, and is frequently known to load the tramps upon the next freight. Or the justice of the peace or the police court judge suspends sentence on condition that the tramp betake himself to the next settlement, where the next judge may still further pass him along, or send him to the local jail.

How can railway vagrancy be reduced? By making the cost of maintenance of vagrants and tramps in correctional institutions a state charge. Just as long as the local authorities have to stand the expense of the imprisonment period of tramps and vagrants, just so long will the passing-on system continue. Railroad detectives may work twenty-four hours a day, only to have the local court release or speed the parting plague on the twenty-fifth hour, because the town cannot afford to stand the expense.

This movement requires legislative action. Such action must be impelled by a strong force. I believe that a national vagrancy committee is a necessary organization. The railroads should be large factors in supporting it financially. Their gain in the reduction of railway vagrancy would be the communities' gain. Therefore, the communities should uphold the railroads in fighting vagrancy, and not look upon their efforts as another example of the persecutions of a soulless group of corporations.

In the third place, almshouses should not be used as the abode or resting-up place for able-bodied workshys. In the absence of "tramp houses" with worktests, one cannot blame the timid farmer's wife from quickly bolting the door and shouting through the crack of the door to the rural tramp to go to the poorhouse over night. That raises two questions. First, will the community establish a tramp house with a work test? Secondly, does not the farmer's wife run a real danger in refusing the tramp food or shelter? Answering the second question first, I would say that the testimony of tramps with whom I have talked is, that the tramp, if not sustaining violence, is not liable to wreak any physical revenge for



not receiving aid. It is a battle of wits. The tramp is generally lying as to his need. He has little admiration for the gullible housekeeper. If refused, he says to himself: "She didn't fall for my yarn." I have lived several years in the suburbs of New York on a farm, and commuted to my work in New York. We have refused many tramps, or offered them work, and we have never suffered any physical harm.

Furthermore, the more violence that there might be, the stronger is the argument for bringing about a change in the present ruisance. We do know, from newspaper articles, of the physical violence occasionally wreaked upon defenseless women. The best way to overcome that danger is to deter the assailants from being in the country at all. And here the "tramp house" with worktest attached will be a potent local remedy. The State of Massachusetts in 1905 passed a drastic tramp law, providing that able-bodied vagrants, whenever lodged by a community, shall be required to render reasonable work in return for food and lodging, which shall be adequate. The result in one year was as follows:

In 1905, 89 almshouses lodged	23,341	vagrants.
In 1906, 61 almshouses lodged	7,900	"
In 1905, 17 towns lodged	2,711	"
In 1906, 17 towns lodged	254	"

Bringing history down to date, we find the comparative absence of tramps in Massachusetts at present to be the result of the rigid enforcement of the tramp law. "It is the opinion of tramp officer Barrett that most of the tramps who formerly infested Massachusetts in large numbers cross over the state as quickly as they can from Connecticut or New York to New Hampshire or Vermont. The state can readily be crossed at almost any point in a day's travel over the roads. Rather than take a chance of a term in a Massachusetts jail, the real tramps hurry across the state to a point where the law is not so thoroughly enforced."<sup>1</sup>

The Massachusetts law further provides that if tramps are to be lodged at all, they shall not be lodged in the almshouses in association with the paupers. In short, the laws of the Bay State are well calculated to make it disagreeable to be a tramp, and the burden of my argument in this paper is that that is the point of view we must adopt in general.

<sup>1</sup> *The Review*, February, 1912.



Is this uncharitable? In no sense. What are the facts? The tramp is of no use even to the moralist, for the latter has other horrible examples from which he can draw his lessons and examples. He is not useful to the labor agitator, for the honest unemployed are sufficiently numerous without the tramp. He is not useful to the charitable societies as cases, or to the hospitals. He is not useful to the prisons, for he is the least susceptible of reformation. To whom is he useful? Not even to himself, for he is a miserable outcast. Then why should we encourage his vice to get the better of his will by being indifferent to the tramp problem? If we are not to be indifferent, we can use but one of two methods, gentle persuasion and charitable help, or rigorous prosecution and drastic treatment. The gentle persuasion and the charitable help are, in my opinion, generally failures; if they are not, why have we not reduced vagrancy? Any one will be apt to say to-day that vagrancy is more widespread than five years ago. Gentle persuasion and charitable help are useful in individual cases, and the spirit of charity toward the fallen and the outcast should never cease out of the land, but we must interpret what we mean by the spirit of charity. To my mind real charity in the problem of the tramp evil is the reduction to the least possible point of bread lines; of free meals and lodgings given by missions, charity societies and prison associations; and the elimination of private or public lodging houses which give free lodging and meals without worktests, or their re-organization into worktest lodging houses. In short, charity in the case of vagrancy means cutting off every chance for the individual vagrant to find an excuse to continue his life of workshyness and parasitism.

This sounds perhaps harsh and hostile, and so it would be, did not my recommendations carry with them provision for constructive assistance to the vagrant, which I shall shortly mention. I cannot too strongly emphasize, however, the folly of looking with tolerance and even pity upon the gradual descent of the vagrant into entire uselessness, instead of performing, if necessary, a major operation upon him early, an operation which, while it will hurt and be drastic, will not endanger life or even reasonable comfort, and will make him literally "sit up and take notice" that life is not one wild ride from city to city and one long series of idle days and debauched nights.



Returning now to our deterrent forces for the reduction of vagrancy, I would put next the great desirability, and even necessity, of having certain state officials to arrest and prosecute vagrants. The graphically designated "tramp officer" is such a one. The state constabulary of Pennsylvania are such. We must protect the rural communities from vicious wanderers of the highway. The village constable is no person to prosecute tramps. In the first place, it is not his business to be a patrolman, and secondly, the farmer who calls him in has to pay fees for the arrest that he makes, if the laws of other sections of the country are the same as those prevailing in the town in which my small farm is located. A mounted constabulary is a great desideratum. Foreign countries have such, and the vagrants and the beggar shun them.

In the next place, persistent effort should be made in all states to do away so far as possible by law with the short sentence and the idle jail. This is not easy. New York has for years sought to establish reasonable industries in the county penitentiaries, but those institutions are under county management, which means often stupid political indifference. So long as counties maintain winter resorts for idle tramps, they can obtain a houseful without publishing any prospectuses. How ridiculous that the very persons who moan and burst into denunciations about the burdens of tramps are often the very ones that show immovable indifference to the jail or penitentiary problem as a penological question, or as anything except a plum for the spoils system!

I have outlined certain reasons for the continuance of the tramp-evil in the country. In the city, which is not a subject for special discussion in this series on rural life, the lodging houses, the complacent five-cent charity-monger on the street, the "rescue-and-advertise-results" missions, the municipal lodging houses without worktests, and the lack of co-operative efforts to deal with the vagrancy question on a large scale and with differentiation of function, are some reasons why we see fully as many vagrants now as we did some years ago. But that is another story.

What shall we do? Organize the national vagrancy committee. Get funds enough and a general secretary of sufficient caliber to engineer a number of movements along the lines mentioned above. The vagrancy business at present is often nobody's business. Its ramifications are so many and so far-reaching that



the charity worker naturally spends his energy on problems more local, nearer home. If there is one problem that should be dealt with on a national basis, it is the tramp problem.

In some states the problem has been forced to the front. New York is fortunate in the group of social workers on public boards and in private organizations who have urged successfully in recent years not alone the tramp colony for habitual tramps and vagrants, but also the establishment of a farm colony for inebriates by the city of New York, and the removal of the city reformatory for misdemeanants from New York City into the country. To catch the tramp young; to cure him if possible of his drink habit; to impress upon him in a tramp colony that tramping is a thing the State of New York does not intend longer to ignore, such are some of the recent moves in the Empire state.

But, along constructive instead of deterrent lines, a national vagrancy committee must make active studies. Inevitably there must be developed in our country some comprehensive form of free employment bureaus, which will eliminate the excuse of vagrants that, being down and out, there is no ready chance for them to get employment again. To the statement that charitable societies already try to "bring the jobless man and the manless job" together, the answer may be made that the general effort to find employment for the unemployed should not have the appearance of charity.

In connection with the development of free employment agencies there should be lodgings at frequent intervals, that is, in contiguous cities and communities where the unemployed may eat and sleep, in return for work done. Never can we conscientiously prosecute the intentionally idle vagrant at all points until we establish a means of temporary employment for him that will remove the plausible excuse that he cannot find employment.

The "way-ticket" plan, adapted from the German identification card, will probably be long in coming into the United States. It is still repugnant to the great majority of citizens to consider being tabbed or "mugged" and numbered. Such measures have been advocated, but their realization is far off. We cannot expect to control the progress from city to city of the unemployed seeker for a job, as is done in Germany. What we can do is to follow the general lead of Massachusetts, and make the entertainment of



the vagrant conditional upon separating such entertainment from that given to paupers, and in return for work.

Along sanitary lines, we can do something by cleaning up the low lodging houses, where the poorest and the most shiftless of the unemployed sleep and "hang-out." Slowly the rules and regulations for common lodging houses are being improved in many cities. The board of health of New York City has recently put in force a rather drastic series of rules and regulations for the government of common lodging houses, after having received the suggested rules in 1907 from two of the large charitable societies of the city, which had compiled them from the experience of many American and foreign cities.

A very tangible method of reducing vagrancy to some extent is rigorously to prosecute begging on the streets or in public places. Abroad the courts make a careful distinction between begging in localities where poor relief is obtainable and in places where it cannot readily be obtained. In our large cities, poor relief for the homeless is accessible, and there should be no toleration of the street mendicant. New York City has suffered for several years from an increased amount of mendicancy, due to the removal in 1906 of the mendicancy squad that had under Mr. Forbes rendered such excellent service to the city under the control of the Charity Organization Society. The street mendicant perverts the charitable impulse without which society cannot maintain its philanthropic work. In the country the beggar has a ground for his story of need, unless there be in the neighborhood a place where he can find shelter, food, and work.

As I have said before, I shall not attempt to indicate the causes of vagrancy. These are in general the same as the causes of poverty, plus, often, the strong desire to wander. The most effective check on vagrancy is the proper kind of education of the young during the years from ten to twenty. The schools, the home and the church must all do their part in preparing the youth for a reasonable, honest and efficient life. Child labor, illness, mental defectiveness, congestion of population, truancy, orphanage, inefficiency, low wages, overwork, industrial accidents, diseases of occupation, the temptations of crime, seasonal and irregular trades; all these causes, and many more, operate to produce the youthful tramp. When they gain possession, the railroad is ready at



hand to bear the boy from his hated surroundings to the wide, wide world beyond the horizon, often a horizon of dismal walls, and sooty chimneys, and slovenly backyards.

Yes, we need a national committee to take up soberly and comprehensively the treatment of the problems of vagrancy. For nearly a half century responsible persons in our country have intermittently emphasized the seriousness of the problem. The time is surely ripe now to act. The so-called larger social movements are well under way. We have our consumers' leagues, our national child labor committee, our national committee for the study and prevention of tuberculosis, our national housing committee, our national association of charity organization societies, and even our national prisoner's aid association. There remain for comprehensive national treatment the two leading causes of commitment to penal institutions: inebriety and vagrancy. These two offenses against society frequently overlap. Should not the next step, or one of the next steps, be the establishment of a national movement to reduce one or both of these great social evils?



## RURAL POLICE

BY CHARLES RICHMOND HENDERSON, PH.D.,  
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The Canadian central government went in advance of the settlers and covered the Northwestern Provinces with a network of stations manned by mounted policemen. Before there was a population dense enough to organize local courts and constabulary, a well disciplined force, with fine horses bred from Arabs and mustangs, were ready to detect, pursue, prosecute, try by legal forms, and punish lawless men. The isolated farmer and his wife slept securely in their sod hovels beyond the frontier, because they knew that a brave and swift corps of vigilant young athletes, many of them bred in stately homes of England, kept sleepless vigil. Life and property were secure, and the settlers were not obliged to divide time and energy between agriculture and war with anti-social men. The economic results were an adequate return for the cost. Family life was more regular because women and children were safe on the frontier. The wild cowboy and the border ruffian were not produced by conditions. The type of civilization was set high from the start. The church had an earlier and calmer hearing, undisturbed by elemental passions of fear and revenge. A milder and more humane policy with the Indians was made possible, because the occasions of exterminating warfare were reduced to a minimum by prescient action and a show of disciplined, military force at every strategic point.

The traveler in Spain has a sense of security on the trains, even in the desolate regions between Cordova and Madrid, because he sees the quiet armed guard who steps off at each station and receives instructions from the telegraph office, while he takes notice of the passengers and gives polite answers to inquiries or appeals for help. It is said that these State guards are more efficient and honest than the municipal officers. Before this ever-moving vigilant force brigandage has melted away, and dangerous robbers have turned to sheep raising and plowing.

The absence of such a far-seeing policy in the United States did produce bloodshed, loss of property, insecurity and barbaric



customs, and delayed the growth of customs and institutions of culture and morality for two generations. In the prairie and mountain territories individual self-defense was necessary, and the lynching party took the place of orderly legal procedure. The ugly scars of these errors will remain in some parts of the United States for generations to come, and many a page of our history will be black with the stories of the borderland of the mountains and plains. It is not pleasant to look at this story even in retrospect.

In the rural regions of the North the tramp, potential robber and murderer when mendicancy will not provide satisfactory repasts, is the terror of farmers' wives. Bands of sturdy rogues take possession of freight trains and have a way of silencing the protests of conductors and brakemen, while they steal rides for the gratification of wanderlust and base appetite. Innocent lads are cajoled into the nomadic and predatory life by the pictures of freedom and idleness which the older vagabonds paint for the imaginations of persons too young to realize the dangers of rheumatism and venereal poisons.

To meet these and kindred evils there is no adequate organization of police. Public attention has often been called, even by President Taft, to the absurd and dangerous delays caused by criminal procedure whose technicalities are an invitation to crime, a promise of immunity. Less attention has been given to the equally urgent necessity of improving our means of apprehending culprits and furnishing evidence for the prosecution of offenders. The value of a rural police as warning and prevention has seldom been discussed as it deserves. When the conflagration of violence and robbery has spread beyond control the forces of law are set to work to check it, all too late. The judicial mill cannot grind without its grist of detected offenders and the proofs beyond reasonable ground for doubt.

Let us support personal opinions by recognized authority. In a standard work by a master of the subject we read: "Most foreign countries have a system of centralized rural police, or *gendarmerie*; but no state in the Union has ever organized such a force, except that sometimes there is a special police to detect illegal sales of liquor. The rural peace officer in America is commonly the constable, elected by popular vote and wholly inadequate for any emergency."<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> A. B. Hart, *Actual Government*, p. 575.



Speaking of forms of brigandage in certain parts of the country, Mr. Bryce says: "Brigandage is due to the absence of a mounted gendarmerie in the vast and thinly-peopled Farther West, and there is no gendarmerie because the federal government leaves the states and territories to create their own, and those unsettled communities, being well armed, prefer to take care of themselves." He raises and answers the question: "Why not create an efficient police? Because crime is uncommon in many districts—in such a district, for instance, as western New York and Ohio—and the people have deliberately concluded that it is cheaper and simpler to take the law into their own hands on those rare occasions when a police is needed than to be at the trouble of organizing and paying a force for which there is usually no employment." ("The American Commonwealth," ed. 1889, Vol. II, pp. 439-440.)

The British observer, in this instance, is rather indulgent to our defect and his explanation is too favorable. It is a national shame for a crowd of men to take the law into their own hands, and it breeds ruffianism and disorder. It is intolerable, and the moral forces of the people must be made to react against it; statesmanship ought to provide regular and legal defense of life, order and property.

We have legal precedents for commonwealth organization of detective service. Massachusetts found it necessary to have a state constabulary to enforce its law prohibiting the liquor traffic, and retained the organization for other purposes after the law was abolished. Rhode Island had a similar experience. South Carolina, in adopting its system of state dispensaries, introduced a state force to make it effective. Connecticut, in 1903, established a body of state police. Bitter experience with conspiracies of miners revealed to Pennsylvania the powerlessness of county authorities in presence of organized law-breakers. The Texas rangers, organized by state authority in 1901, have been found helpful in suppressing outbreaks near the Mexican frontier. Arizona and New Mexico appear to be satisfied with a similar experiment.<sup>2</sup>

The law is the law of the state. Municipal corporations have no original authority to enact legislation; their ordinances cannot go beyond charter limitations. The enforcement of law, the punishment

<sup>2</sup> John A. Fairlie, *Local Government in Counties, Towns and Villages* (1906), pp. 268-271.



of crime, the prevention of dangerous acts are all functions of the commonwealth. And this with good reason: it would be intolerable to have an independent law-making authority set up within the territory of a state. No local community can be permitted to become a nursery of criminals, a cave of Adullam serving as a resort for dangerous elements. Horse thieves and burglars will not restrict their malignant activity to the township of their residence. They may even spare their neighbors and live by spoiling persons at a distance.

The criminal of a city go out to plunder rural banks and stores. The common interest does not stop at city lines. The common enemy must be caught where he can be overtaken. The recent extension of trolley lines into the country and the introduction of swift automobiles have widened the field for professional burglars of cities. Against these trained villains the thin safes of country merchants and banks are mere tissue paper.

The rural constabulary is no match for city bred criminals, skilful in the use of dynamite and electricity, and shrewd in studying the hours best adapted for their exploits. The sheriff at the county seat is a toy in the hands of a professional sneak thief or burglar. Even if he can spare time from collecting the fees which fall to him as spoils of his office, he has no natural or acquired qualifications as a detective; he is both awkward and ignorant. Local agents of peace and justice have only a local knowledge of persons bent on crime, usually those who are most harmless, stupid inebriates, naughty boys whose mothers have neglected to spank them. Rural sheriffs and constables know nothing of the sleek, well dressed, polite criminals who reside in comfort in the city and put up at the best inn of the country town while planning to rob a bank or a merchant's cash drawers. The big, burly sheriff is a baby in cunning when pitted against a wily safe-blower who from childhood has lived by his wicked wits and fooled professional detectives. The rural officials are made cowardly by their habits of life; they know nothing of the daring which is characteristic of urban firemen and policemen who face death daily and never think of shrinking. A desperate fellow may dynamite fish, contrary to law, in a lake near a state university; but farmers and professors are afraid to inform, and county officials are too timid to arrest. State game wardens, just because they move about on large areas, seem to have some



influence on killing game out of season, but their organization leaves much to be desired.

What is needed may be inferred from the statement of essential facts in the situation. We need a larger unit of police control; under our political arrangements the governor is the natural head of all the forces of public safety. It would be a good beginning to clothe the chief magistrate of every commonwealth with authority to direct county sheriffs and to hold them to strict account. But a more important measure would be to furnish the governor with a complete and thoroughly organized corps of detectives, plain clothes men and mounted police, under a professionally trained chief responsible to the governor for methods and results. In the central office would be found an identification bureau, with Bertillon and finger print records, in close and regular correspondence with the federal bureau of identification; and this office would furnish descriptions at a moment's notice for any point in the state or elsewhere. The state police force of a state would co-operate with those of other states in matters of detection, arrest and extradition. Suspicious characters in villages and cities would be kept under espionage and plots would be discovered and thwarted. Of the necessary legal adjustments between municipal police, sheriffs and the state force this is not the place to write. Such adjustments could easily be made in accordance with precedents already established.

The men of this country owe it to the wives and daughters of farmers to provide for them better protection. Self-appointed patrols are not enough, and the state ought not to leave private citizens to guard their own barns and homes. The insolence, the fierce passion and the dangerous brutality of certain types of negroes in the South could be effectually curbed by a guard of mounted police. It is the hope of immunity which nurses sexual passion into assault. Animal impulses meet with their best counter-stimulus and inhibition in the frequent and unexpected appearance of alert and omnipresent mounted policemen.

Certain results may fairly be expected: In the war with crime it is essential to make the way of the transgressor as hard as possible, and, at the same time, open ways to honest industry. Wild animals disappear before the hunters of civilization. Gangs of criminals are like predatory animals and must be harried and



watched until this mode of living becomes unendurable. Swift and sure justice begins with a trained corps of detectives. All admit that mobs and lynchings are a disgrace and menace to our civilization. They arise out of prolonged neglect and frequent miscarriage of justice. They would diminish and disappear with a well disciplined and effective rural police.



## VILLAGE PROBLEMS AND CHARACTERISTICS

BY EDWARD T. HARTMAN,  
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A village, in the sense in which we use it here, is neither grass nor hay. Its problems are radically different from those of the open country, but it has not settled itself into the well regulated ways of a proper urban development. The grass in the meadow may not at once become hay in the stack without undergoing a certain curing process to adapt it to the needs of its new environment. The village stage is the curing stage in urban development. The village problems are serious or light in proportion to their advancement toward substantial and ideal urban conditions.

Those of us who are interested in the village problem have no claims for the superiority of urban over rural conditions, but they are different, and when urban conditions commence they must be met by changed methods because of changed relationships. In the change of methods lies the seriousness of the entire village problem.

The most necessary consideration is of a sane, constructive program. This program is the same whether we live in a rural or urban environment, but when the transition from the one to the other condition begins to come, the seriousness of the problems increases and differentiation and apportionment among the items of the program become matters of pressing concern.

The complications begin in the village where the proximity of people gives to their actions and customs a more than personal significance, because they affect other people. It is here that the community is born, if it gets born on time, and that regulation of the actions of the individual by all becomes a necessity. In the failure to adopt and enforce these regulations lies the essence of village difficulties. Failure to attend to the constructive side of the community work forces need for greater and more serious activity on the remedial side; and here failure is a common condition because the very causes of failure in constructive work are still more apt to produce failure with remedial work.



The fundamental items of a constructive social program are the home, the church, the school and play and recreation. These are serious and too much neglected items in a rural program, but they assume new meanings under village and urban conditions. These new meanings first show themselves when urban conditions have their beginnings in village development. They too commonly go without proper consideration and failure in this adds to the seriousness of remedial problems, which are anyway always present through accident, failure and injustice.

The remedial items of the social program, police, courts, jails, hospitals, charity, settlements, are all going to find useful work to do even in the best regulated communities until a new era has come and decreased the amount; but their work is greatly increased through a too late attention to the constructive items, and through over-emphasis of the remedial as an end within itself.

Let us briefly consider the items of the constructive program. The home is a thing of the spirit, but it must have a physical setting. The problems of this setting, those connected with the housing problem, are greatly complicated by every step towards urban conditions. A bad house often renders a home in the true sense impossible and it adds to the seriousness of the problems of morals, health and poverty. But in the village it begins to affect other houses and the lives and property of others than those who live in it. It is here that the people as a whole must begin to regulate, through laws affecting construction and maintenance, in order that each family may have a chance for what is right and that it may be in a measure forced to what is right for the good of others.

Here the village too commonly fails. It refuses to recognize the problem till most serious conditions are self-evident. And when they become evident the village too commonly aims at developing the remedial institutions rather than at improving the home so that it may properly do its work.

And so it is with the other items, the church, the school and play and recreation. They do not soon enough functionize or they develop needless functions. The village church is too often two or three churches which struggle for existence rather than for accomplishment. The village school is too apt to educate for unfitness. The play and recreation facilities are either wanting or unsupervised, the latter being worse than the former. But there are signs of a



new era in all these respects. A recognition of the importance of the house as a constructive and preventive implement is growing, the functional development of the church is receiving attention, schools are beginning to educate for the needs of the environment rather than for the needs of some different environment, and supervised play and recreation are beginning to be developed, even in the smallest communities. This is an era of hopeful progress. The inter-play of thought between country, village and city is bringing out with constantly increasing clearness the nature of their problems, the variation of the problems under different conditions, and the relation of the various problems in the social program of the community. People are learning, too, that when the home approaches the ideal of effectiveness; when religion stands for a broad citizenship and does not tend towards community quarreling, and when our religious plants are as much used as idle; when education really leads toward something, toward mastery and the ability to do the things at hand, and when our school plants are more used than idle; when we see in play the real chance of the child to grow and in recreation as great possibilities, because of the inherent demands of humanity for recreation, as are recognized by those who have commercialized recreation, we shall then have so promoted justice, reduced accident and lessened failure, that much less is left for remedial institutions to do and that then they gradually cease to be the unhappy burden, both in energy and money expended, which they are to-day.

We can perhaps best get at the spirit of the village by considering its attitude toward certain of our remedial institutions. This attitude is not so important as that toward constructive institutions, but it is more evident. To fail to keep a boy well is not so striking to us as to fail to try to cure him when he is ill. To fail to make honesty the natural thing is to us not so serious as to fail to do something with a thief.

The village point of view toward crime is serious. Whatever the fundamental causes of a crime may be, it is most damaging for a community to fail to recognize and handle it. Failure may not be more common in villages than in cities, but failure in villages is more obvious. To illustrate:

In a certain village where live many cultured people there are many bad conditions. These conditions are, briefly, that gambling



joints run "full blast" from time to time; lewd girls, both mulatto and white, ply their trade without molestation and to the detriment of the health of many young men; the drug stores seem to sell liquor to anyone who wants it, although it is a no-license town; warrants issued for the arrest of disorderly men "have quietly *not* been served."

With this as a foreground, we find in the background a body of selectmen who say they have no authority to enforce the law in such matters, and the judge of the local court is reported as slow to act and as inclined to leniency with even old offenders.

All this prompts a citizen to send out a plea for the assistance of outsiders in the formation of a general law and order league and perhaps the establishment of a state constabulary, which would make possible the enforcement of law in the different localities in an impersonal way.

Experts consulted gave significant conclusions. One of them started his reply with this sentence: "On the question of the lying down of —, I do not know." He said more, but this is enough. Another said: "If there is any local public sentiment the matter can be reached through the local officials; if there is none the community deserves on the whole about what it gets. This constant effort to obtain good government by changing the method of procedure without getting at the root of the matter would be really amusing if it had not an element of pathos in it."

These comments are pertinent. The description of conditions might equally well be applied to many other towns. The citizens of these towns are too indifferent to make the promptings of their civic conscience amount to anything. They dislike to take action because it is unpleasant to proceed or appear against a neighbor, even though he be a bad one. The impersonal nature of law enforcement in cities makes it much easier to secure official action there than in towns. A crystallized public sentiment will produce official action. But however much we may be inclined to criticise in any particularly bad case, it remains true and always will that there are serious elements in law enforcement in villages.

A Massachusetts law of 1909 made it illegal to sell blank cartridges, toy blank cartridge pistols, fire-crackers over two inches long, etc. The enforcement was placed in the hands of the state police, who were interested and determined. The following Fourth



was like a New England Sabbath. If enforcement had been placed in local hands many violations would have occurred.

But state police cannot and ought not do everything. The curing stage must be hastened and citizens in small groups must do their duty the same as in large groups.

Failure to recognize both cause and cure for difficulties is common among villages. A citizen appealed to a private society for help. His village was small and isolated. A kitchen bar was operated for years till finally a man was employed to secure evidence, which he did, and the place was closed. That night the young hoodlums of the town painted the investigator's house black. It was not done by foreigners, for there were none, but by the sons of some of the villagers. What could they do with them? There was no playground nor any chance for proper recreation, but "the children could play everywhere." Questioning showed that they could play nowhere, for they had been arrested for playing in both streets and vacant lots. Perhaps the chief cause of the difficulty was here. As to a method of handling the immediate case, was there a probation officer? Yes, but he lived in an adjoining village, where he and the judge, whose appointment he had helped to secure and who had appointed him, held high court of mutual admiration and paid but little attention to the needs of the district.

The problem of illegal liquor-selling is common throughout the country, but it is most flagrant and injurious in villages where it is so easily obvious when it occurs and where the officers will not prosecute their neighbors and where public opinion for a like reason will not prosecute the officers. Such conditions as have been described develop or permit the development of immorality and crime which, together with the often consequent poverty, render many villages veritable beds of iniquity and misery.

This black picture stands out in marked contrast with villages where early recognition of bad conditions is followed by prompt action for prevention and cure. An interesting example of a regulation of a bad condition may be seen in one village where a college is located. By a tacit understanding a hotel keeper is allowed to sell liquor under a government license so long as he sells to no students and no minors. The procedure, while questionable, is effective. A higher development of public opinion in the same direction generally renders illegal selling a most dangerous and



unprofitable business. This is the goal to which all villages must come if they are to improve to a satisfactory degree in every part of their organism.

The spirit of this village with the restricted type of law-breaking is interestingly shown by another development brought about by its citizens. A child which was not very strong always became ill when it went to school. The mother finally looked into the matter, drew others around her and conducted an investigation. The schools were found to be badly ventilated and dusty. To handle the work effectively a school alliance was organized. The work of this alliance discovered other needs and a more comprehensive League for Social Service was the result.

Twenty-eight organizations made up the original group. Others have been added, each paying three dollars a year towards the general management. Individuals join and pay one dollar. But the function of the league is the interesting fact. Every appeal for help, wherever it may come among the groups or individuals in the league, is referred to the agent in charge, who is a trained social worker. She investigates the case and decides what should be done, referring the applicant to the organization which has previously agreed to do that particular kind of work.

In the village were found a number of families where both father and mother had to work in factories. Their children were locked in, or locked out, or otherwise left to their own devices, much to their injury. A day nursery was developed and the children are now properly cared for. A proper adjustment of our industrial system will some day enable the mother to stay at home and look after her children.

Quite a group of people, many children among them, were found to be a quarter of a mile from the village water supply. It was neglected because it would cost quite a sum of money to make the main connection and there was no leader. The league raised a fund of one hundred dollars, made the connection and supplied a few families. From these it gradually collects the costs, which will be used in extending the system till all are supplied.

Difficulties in the overseers of the poor and the school committee were remedied by pointing out where the trouble rested. Public opinion soon righted the situations.

There will be slips and failures, but this village has the right



idea and it will avoid many difficulties common to village life, even though it may make some mistakes in carrying out its work.

The purely co-operative spirit is needed to a far greater degree than may be commonly found in American villages. The people of Denmark have pointed the way and England, Scotland and Ireland are far ahead of us. Many of the most difficult and often insurmountable problems of the rural districts may be solved in the village through co-operative effort. Take such a simple matter as appliances for the sick room. Only the wealthy can afford them. It is almost out of the question to have them in the country but the cities have them in hospitals and elsewhere. What can the village do?

One village has solved the problem through the organization of a Samaritan Association. It saw the need, raised some money, purchased two hundred and twenty-one dollars worth of supplies, rented a room and employed a custodian. For over twenty years this equipment, which now invoices at nine hundred dollars, has been serving the people. When there is accident or serious illness the needed articles are loaned just as are books from a library, except that a requisition from a physician accompanies the application. Some of them help the patient and also remove much of the burden of care from the attendant wife, husband or relative. They consist of special beds and lifting chairs, wheel chairs, electric batteries, hot-water bags, ice-bags, oxygen inhaling apparatus, syringes, steam sterilizers, thermometers, window tents and similar appliances. During the first year there were seventy loans, while for 1910 there were 510 loans and 224 families were assisted.

But this is merely an illustration. What has been done in this line may be done in other lines. The sick, the home, the church, the school, the poor, the whole range of village institutions and problems may be carried much farther towards a satisfactory solution by such co-operative processes.

This suggests the question of the types of organization which can be most useful in the solution of the various community problems which naturally have their first development in villages. The ones described above are good. The main thing is that the organization have a definite objective and that this objective be fundamental. Villages have been filled with organizations many of which have proved short-lived because of the superficial nature of their



objective. Of this the village improvement society is a good example. With the best of motives it has too often tried to superimpose something upon a condition which was not adapted to the endeavor. Out-door-art is a common objective. But it is difficult, often impossible, to superimpose art upon ugliness. A proper development in the first instance would have been effective and it is often the only way to reach a satisfactory result. Organizations should therefore aim at fundamental things, at good housing, at home and school gardens, at playgrounds and even at the improvement of the work of the churches and the schools. Along with these must come work for improving governmental methods and an improved ideal as to the functions of government. A public authority can not go ahead of public opinion and private organizations are always necessary to develop this opinion so that it may support progressive authorities and stimulate to action those which are backward.

There is another group of village functions, which offers serious problems. These are streets, water, sewage disposal, garbage, lighting. Sewage and water are serious as between villages and between villages and cities. It is generally an easy matter for one village to entirely and satisfactorily dispose of its sewage, so far as it is concerned, as soon as it really makes up its mind to it. But its method, satisfactory to itself and its inhabitants, may pollute the water supply of dozens of other villages and cities. This complicates the problem for the individual village; for it must effectively rid itself of its sewage and do no harm to any other place.

Increasingly therefore must villages develop self-contained systems of sewage disposal. This may sometimes be accomplished through filtration, or by spreading the sewage upon the land. But the growth in the number of villages and the growth of the larger urban centers render a different system, such as bacteria beds, more and more imperative. This will be expensive, but nothing near so expensive as failure to do it. It therefore promises to be one of the most serious problems confronting the village of the future. It will have to receive the attention of local authorities and it is worthy of the efforts of our strongest private societies and individuals. The collective loss induced by failure will always overbalance the collective cost of doing the work properly. It is not characteristic of villages to face these things soon enough. The



result is that almost irremedial damage is constantly being done and enormous loss of life and money is the necessary cost of an effective public opinion.

At the risk of repeating let us point out again that the great need in the village is for a community consciousness. The village here suffers a severe handicap. It has problems of a serious nature and it has not the impersonal nature of law enforcement which is common in larger places. In the village a man knows all his neighbors. In the city he knows almost none of them. To do the work of the village properly there must be a fundamental understanding of the problem and a determination to work unitedly towards its solution. This calls in the village for a community sense which is different from that in the country and greater by far than that even necessary in the city.

A good way to develop this spirit is to work out elementary activities embodying the principles of team play. In the game of football, racial, credal, political and even caste differences disappear. With this example we are naturally led to the conclusion that a community enterprise along the lines of sport or recreation, something having these elements though it may have many others, will help to bring the people together, to learn to work together. When they learn it in one way it is an easy step to use it in another way.

The village pageant is a good example. Its success as a whole depends upon the successful working out and performance of its most minute parts. It has been and is being used with the best of results. It varies from a general celebration of the Fourth, so developed that the whole village comes into its activities, to formal pageants recounting the history of the village or illustrating the evolution of education, religion or politics. This movement promises to lead us into new ways of life, to give an impetus to literature, to dignify recreation and to give us that community consciousness which will solve our practical village problems. It will at every point put us on a higher plane.

A quotation from the introductory statement on the program of a recent village pageant of games and dances will let us at once into the spirit of the movement:

"These singing games and dances are now the games of children or of peasant maidens. When the world was younger they were the amusement of courtly dames and of finished gentlemen.



Some of them have been played by Egyptians and Aryans, Greeks and Romans, and some, before they were games, had their basis in ceremonial rites and customs. Long ago the children, after the manner of children everywhere, copied in play what their elders performed in sober earnest, and through the centuries the child of twelve taught the child of six the same words and actions it had learned from its playmates. From land to land games and rhymes diffused and descended till they reached the age of printed books and countless libraries, an age of haste and unremitting toil in factory and mill. There they perished and to-day we glean but a few scattered and unregarded fragments of the past store.

"But we still have with us the spring, the season of expectation, and the autumn with its ripened harvest. May we not hope that when the world has become used to its new tools, and their perfection has lightened the burden of toil, the spirit of joy will again return and express itself in forms old and new."

As the child grows through its play, more than through any of its other activities, so, it seems, we may look to the play of communities for a source, perhaps the best one, of growth which will help to solve community problems. With the community as with the child, the period of play is a period of receptivity, of frankness, of open-mindedness. It is not too much to say that no discussion of the dry bones of government, and no adoption of any articulation of them, will ever do as much for our villages as these harmless, helpful, moulding activities which lead village people out of self-consciousness and selfishness into the spirit which sees, appreciates and adopts.

It is the spirit rather than the content of law which rules among honest people. The villager must therefore develop the spirit of law, the spirit of usefulness rather than harmfulness to the neighbor which changed conditions have brought into close physical relationship with him. For this spirit, which little needs to exist in the country and which can hardly exist in the city, is absolutely essential to the village.

If our interpretation is accurate the village may have something which is hardly to be found in any other state of society. It must have it if it is to succeed. The development of it is the essence of the village problem.







## BOOK DEPARTMENT

### NOTES

**Anderson, B. M.** *Social Value*. Pp. xviii, 199. Price, \$1.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1911.

This is not a book for the uninitiated; it is for the inner circle of those interested in the more abstract phases of economic study. Beginning with a criticism of the Austrian interpretation of value the author critically examines the psychological and sociological background of economic theory. This examination has a double significance. In the first place it throws into bolder relief many of the difficulties and errors of current reasoning on subjective value. In the second place—and more important than this—it justifies, in spite of its own abstractness, a broader attitude on the part of the economic theorist than is now prevalent. This virtually amounts to a criticism of current methodology. To afford significant results, economic theorizing must not pursue the method of heroic isolation of “purely economic” phenomena. Economic interpretation is valid only when from its special viewpoint it recognizes all factors in terms of their broader social values. The treatment would have left a stronger impression if it had avoided occasional, gratuitous, personal estimates of the eminence of contemporary thinkers. As personal judgments, these count for little; as adumbrations of the “social mind” they are superfluous.

**Bligh, S. M.** *The Desire for Qualities*. Pp. xii, 322. Price, 70 cents. New York: Oxford University Press, 1911.

Once in a long while the reviewer comes across a book that warms the very cockles of his heart. He little realized that such a treat was in store when he picked up this little volume and pondered its title. The author shows rather unusual and desirable qualities himself; he knows the field and its present literature; he is able to state succinctly and fairly contrasting viewpoints; he has a gift of expression that results in many a pleasing phrase. The whole discussion is most suggestive and stimulating.

The author believes that hitherto the psychologist and the moralist have lost the advantages they might have secured by co-operation. To suggest common ground is one of the book's main objects. The psychologist “needs more than anything else to throw himself more heartily into the practical business of life.” “The moralist has to give up whatever claims he might wish to make for an absolute morality” . . . “Above all, he has to give up the primitive and retaliatory theories which were in the past too generally adopted, and to learn that denunciation is, as an instrument of reformation, almost as much out of date as the pillory or the ducking stool.”

In the first chapter is given “the general theory of appreciating some values and depreciating others; in the second the personal qualities which



influenced particular variations; in the third the pragmatic element in valuation; and in the fourth the aesthetic." The fifth treats "the element of social suggestion in valuation;" the sixth, the creation of new values by strong personalities. Psychological Benefits, Self Respect, Mental Discourse, Sexual Standards, Vice and the Treatment of Vicious Tendencies are the heads of the remaining chapters.

Such a fresh, virile, masterly discussion deserves wide reading.

**Boyd, William.** *The Educational Theory of Jean Jacques Rousseau.* Pp. xiii, 368. Price, \$1.75. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1911.

**Boyle, James.** *The Initiative and Referendum: Its Folly, Fallacies and Failures.* Pp. 120. Price, 30 cents, paper; \$1.00, cloth. Columbus, Ohio: A. H. Smythe, 1912.

This little pamphlet harangues much, but contains no ideas and no information. It bristles with such maudlin phrases as "Revolutionary," "Reactionary," "The Gateway of Socialism," "The Madness of Democracy," and "The Greatest Tragedy of Christendom." It applies the statements of Jefferson, Webster and other of "the fathers" to modern conditions, quite forgetting that those were just the men who could reshape their ideas to fit new conditions. The book is best described as the fanaticism of the standpatter. It may have a little value, however, if it points out to the opponents of the Initiative and Referendum the kind of arguments they should not use.

**Bradford, Ernest S.** *Commission Government in American Cities.* Pp. xiv, 359. Price, \$1.25. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

**Brode, H.** *British and German East Africa.* Pp. xiv, 175. Price, \$2.10. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1911.

**Burton, Theodore F.** *Corporations and the State.* Pp. xvi, 249. Price, \$1.25. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1911.

**Cadman, S. P.** *Charles Darwin and Other English Thinkers.* Pp. ix, 284. Price, \$1.25. Boston: The Pilgrim Press, 1911.

This publication, a series of lectures delivered before the Brooklyn Institute of Arts and Science during the autumn of 1910, has added another to the list of books that have endeavored to end the long and unreasoning conflict between science and religion. The lectures give, in a clear and popular style, a sincere religious interpretation of the life and work of the nineteenth century intellectual leaders, "whose teachings have been thought to stand in irreconcilable contradiction to the essential truths of Christianity." The author states his belief "that a new day has dawned for the Christian Church, in which she can fearlessly, and yet reverently, utilize their newer conceptions for the enrichment of the generation she seeks to serve."

Even the prejudiced reader would be won by the story of Darwin's inspired conception of the evolution hypothesis, and of his patient life's labor to learn God's methods of creation. The picture of Thomas Henry Huxley, Darwin's brilliant and intrepid defender, is a forceful one. One cannot but admire this energetic worker and brave agnostic, the foe of bigotry and materialism alike, and apostle of our new age of scientific



religious liberty. The treatment of John Stuart Mill is scarcely so sympathetic, although the genius and influence of "the saint of rationalism" are recognized. Irrelevant criticism of Mill's personal life gives way at last to an appreciation of the prophet of the religion of humanity.

The lectures on James Martineau, probably because of their theological content, are longest and least interesting. The presentation of a strong and earnest personality, perhaps too little known to the present generation, is, however, significant. When materialism was dominant, Martineau's intuitional philosophy pronounced "the divinity of man and the immanence of God," though he lacked Christ's social gospel of a regenerated humanity. The last lectures deal with Matthew Arnold, the proud, bookish exponent of culture and implacable foe of Philistine complacency and sectarian narrowness. Arnold saw the evils of unrighteousness and injustice that denied to men harmonious development, but failed to touch the throbbing hearts of his fellowmen.

Dr. Cadman reveals the sincerity and courage of these giants of modern thought—these truly religious prophets of man's freedom in his age-long search for God.

*Cambridge Medieval History.* Volume 1. Pp. xxii, 754. Price, \$5.00. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

**Chapman, S. J.** *Outlines of Political Economy.* Pp. xvi, 413. Price, \$1.25. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1911.

This work is designed for beginners and is well adapted to their needs. Definitions, contrasts and summaries are regularly clean-cut, and are made in such a common-sense way as to be easy to follow. Doctrinally, the work follows Marshall rather closely, but the handling of material is so distinctive that the book has merit quite beyond its value as a textbook. Particularly useful are the diagrams and illustrative tables.

**Clark, L. D.** *The Law of the Employment of Labor.* Pp. xii, 373. Price, \$1.60. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

At least two difficulties have regularly confronted the general student who wishes to become acquainted with the status of the labor law of the United States. In the first place, the compilation of the labor laws of the states and the United States has grown to be a volume of discouraging bulk; and treatises bearing on these laws and their interpretation have usually been equally forbidding. In the second place, the items of legislation change so rapidly that any detailed account has very short-lived value. Under the circumstances, there has been real need for a volume that would in limited scope afford a convenient background for the understanding and interpretation of recent rapid advances in the field of labor legislation. This has been well done in the volume before us. It affords a summary and general view of statutory regulations and of their legal construction and effect, as well as the common law in its application to labor.

Representative cases and statutes are cited in a manner adequate to give any student a summary view, and further study is made easy by ample references.



**Devine, Edward T.** *The Spirit of Social Work.* Pp. xi, 231. Price, \$1.00. New York: Charities Publication Committee, 1911.

**Doherty, Phillip J.** *The Liability of Railroads to Interstate Employees.* Pp. 371. Price, \$3.00. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1911.

**Edwards, Albert.** *Panama.* Pp. x, 585. Price, \$2.50. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

A popular history of Panama is welcome at this time. Mr. Edwards has presented in an entertaining style, the history of the canal, the country and the people. The volume opens with two chapters containing the author's observations upon what he saw *en route* to Panama via the Lesser Antilles; then follow seven chapters describing the Canal Zone, Colon and Panama, the Isthmus and its inhabitants. Two-thirds of the book are devoted to a historical sketch of Panama from "The Coming of the White Man" to "The Secession from Colombia." The last hundred pages contain an account of the construction of the canal, the chapter titles being "Beginning Work," "The Boss of the Job," "Pulling the Teeth of the Tropics," "Transplanting Americans," "The Big Jobs," and "Experiments in Collective Activity." Some of the earlier and later chapters of the book first appeared as magazine articles. While the book is more popular than scholarly, it has real merit.

**Ewen, W. R. T.** *Commercial Law.* Pp. 100. Price, \$1.50. Chicago: Rollins Publishing Company, 1911.

This little volume comprises ten lectures which the author delivered before the Fire Insurance Club of Chicago. The subjects of the lectures are as follows:

1, Contracts; 2, commercial paper; 3, bailments; 4, chattel mortgages; 5, bills of sale; 6, mechanics' liens; 7, attachments; 8, garnishment; 9, real estate, law of descent, real estate trusts, landlord, tenant, etc.; 10, waiver.

Naturally, in a book of one hundred pages, it would be impossible to treat adequately the law of contracts or the law of commercial paper or any one of some of the other subjects which appear in the foregoing list. But to treat them all in such brief compass, is well nigh hopeless. Nevertheless, Mr. Ewen has made an interesting booklet and one which will doubtless be of some assistance to the casual reader. Of course, it is not a book for lawyers or for business men who are making a definite study of law. But the layman who desires a concise statement of some of the main principles of business law will find much that is useful in its pages.

Written by a Chicago lawyer and delivered to an audience of Chicago business men, these lectures almost inevitably lay special stress upon the Illinois law. Outside of that state, the book will hardly command a wide circle of readers. But the chapter on contracts and some of the other chapters are of more than local interest, and may be read with profit by a citizen of any state.

A lecture written for a special occasion is usually less likely to be quite accurate than what is intended primarily for permanent use in book form. This fact is occasionally illustrated throughout the lectures in a lapse from



that exactness of thought and expression which one may well expect in a text-book. But on the whole, Mr. Ewen is to be highly commended for the care with which his work has been prepared.

**Geil, W. E.** *Eighteen Capitals of China*. Pp. xx, 429. Price, \$5.00. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1911.

**Gettell, R. G.** *Readings in Political Science*. Pp. xli, 528. Price, \$2.25. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1911.

Mr. Gettell's Introduction to Political Science has already become familiar to teachers of elementary courses in American colleges. A comparison of this work with that shows commendable adjustment between the two. Large classes in our colleges cannot be handled by text, supplemented by outside readings, alone. No library can carry the large number of duplicate texts and reference works needed for consultation by the students of an elementary course. Mr. Gettell's collection will therefore be of service in bringing to the student discussions which would otherwise be inaccessible or obtainable with difficulty, because of the few copies available for use by a large number of readers.

The selections are short and to the point. Many of the assignments made to college students necessitate too much wading through discussions that are redundant or only secondarily written to cover the subject under consideration. Mr. Gettell has succeeded in avoiding these faults. One feels at times that limitations of space have forced him to the other extreme—that the material has become choppy through too much specialization. It is, of course, difficult to cover so wide a field, but one feels that some of the works quoted from are so sure to be present in duplicate in our libraries, or so apt to be used as texts in other courses in political science, that it might have been better to give less attention to them and devote the space to longer quotations from the other material. There are, for example, 504 quotations in 519 pages of text, including twenty-two extracts from Willoughby's *Nature of the State*, seventeen from Wilson's *The State*, over a dozen each from Hart's *Actual Government*, Dealey's *Development of the State* and Lowell's *Government and Parties in Continental Europe*, not to mention works less widely used.

With this exception, the book is well planned. It will be of value for use in elementary courses, especially where the classes are large or the library facilities restricted.

**Holmes, T. Rice.** *Cæsar's Conquest of Gaul*. 2nd edition. Pp. xxxix, 872. Price, \$7.75. New York: Oxford University Press, 1911.

In his first edition, published in 1899, Dr. Holmes began with the idea of making Cæsar interesting and informing to schoolboys and to some others of a larger growth. He ended by making a book which is generally recognized as indispensable to every serious student of the *Gallic War*, and has found favor with intelligent readers in many other lines. After an account of the previous relations of the Gauls and the Romans, Cæsar's principal campaigns are given in practically his own words. The remaining 700 pages are devoted to the discussion of almost every question which could arise



in the mind of a thoughtful reader. These are treated with full consideration of the literature, which is often exceedingly voluminous, and the conclusions are well supported by evidence, even when one cannot accept them.

In the second edition, which the author somewhat optimistically regards as final, the work has been thoroughly revised and almost wholly re-written. It is handsomely bound and well printed, with very few typographical errors, and provided with maps and plans. There should have been two volumes, as the book is too bulky to handle conveniently, and in some places the beginnings and ends of the lines cannot be read without difficulty.

**Huan-Cheng, Chen.** *The Economic Principles of Confucius and His School.*

Pp. xv, 756. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1911.

Confucianism is a philosophy of life. As such it could scarcely fail to contain elements susceptible of classification along political, economic and other distinctive social lines. Under these circumstances, it is inevitable that a study of any one of these social aspects should carry with it the necessity of canvassing them all. This Dr. Chen has done with unusual zeal and patience. The viewpoint is economic. The organizing of the material along the lines of orthodox, occidental, economic analysis could scarcely produce any other results. But one can scarcely avoid regretting this *tour de force*. Ethical rules, as well as other social standards, are usually open to economic interpretation. But to ascribe to the economic aspects of a discussion of standards such as those involved in Confucianism the status of an organized body of principles, even by implication, has questionable value. It surely detracts some from the value of the two volumes before us. These are rich in material and in suggestive interpretation.

**Hungerford, E.** *The Modern Railroad.* Pp. xxi, 476. Price, \$1.75. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1911.

**Jevons, W. S.** *Theory of Political Economy.* Pp. xlv, 339. Price, \$3.25. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

A new edition of an economic classic.

**Johnson, C.** *Highways and Byways of the Great Lakes.* Pp. xiv, 328. Price, \$2.00. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

Like most of the author's series on Highways and Byways, this one on the Great Lakes seeks rather to give a series of pen pictures of typical scenes and incidents in the region about the Great Lakes than to describe the section as a whole or comprehensively to set forth the life and activities of the people. A few common, often homely, scenes and events are chosen for description that show some characteristic feature or give a picture of the life of the people and their ideas, as brought out in their daily conversations. The book's purpose is not informational; its primary purpose is to give an impression of the region from the human viewpoint. It must be read, therefore, not for the facts it can give, interesting as these may be, but for the same reason that leads one out into the byways on a vacation day in summer. The book treats principally of rural scenes in western New York, along the southern shore of Lake Erie and in the forest sections of Michigan. The copper and iron country of the Lake Superior region



are treated, as also the farming regions of Wisconsin and northern Illinois. The many illustrations that accompany the text are selected for their artistic interest primarily.

**King, Clyde L.** *The History of the Government of Denver with Special Reference to Its Relations with Public Service Corporations.* Pp. 322. Price, \$1.00. Denver, Colo.: Fisher Book Company, 1911.

The study of municipal government has heretofore suffered from the lack of monographs on individual cities. One of the first to meet this need, both as regards thoroughness and lucidity of expression, is that just published by Dr. Clyde Lyndon King.

This monograph contains much more than a mere exposition of the governmental organization of Denver. It is a thorough study of municipal policy, with special reference to the relation of the city of Denver to public service corporations. The author has also given an illuminating account of the struggle of Colorado municipalities for municipal home rule, and his treatment of the subject throws much light on the requirements of constructive municipal legislation in other states of the Union.

It is to be hoped that Dr. King's monograph will be followed by a series of equally suggestive studies on the municipal organization and local policy of other large cities of the country.

**Lands, Fisheries, Game and Minerals.** Pp. 519. Ottawa: Mortimer Company, Ltd., 1911.

The Commission of Conservation publishes a 520-page volume on Lands, Fisheries, Game and Minerals. It is well illustrated by a number of maps, diagrams and charts showing mineral resources and products, but the book is quite as much a collection of laws concerning mining as it is discussion of conservation. The large amount of emphasis and space giving definite regulations of various localities and species is probably a tribute to the large part that the visiting sportsman plays in the economic life of the Eastern provinces. The part pertaining to lands is relatively small.

**Low, A. M.** *The American People.* Volume 2. Pp. vi, 608. Price, \$2.25. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1911.

The second volume of Mr. Low's interesting study of the psychology of the American people gives us his survey of the period from just before the Revolution to the present time. The treatment, unlike the first volume, is only incidentally chronological, and the work is therefore more a collection of essays than a logically developed story. After discussing the conditions—social, political and economic—which caused the Revolution, an excursion is made to show the effect upon our national life of the fact that we have no capital like London or Paris which is the center of the country and "like a great spider," has "sucked blood from the provinces." Then a chapter is devoted to showing that in America woman neither reigns nor rules. The characterization of American women many of Mr. Low's readers will find amusing, if not exasperating.

Returning to his semi-historical study, the sociological influences which have controlled American development are considered seriatim. Four fac-



tors dominate American history: hatred of England as a result of war, popular contempt for law, the influence of the immigrant, especially the Irish, and the economic, social and political impulsion of slavery. The influence of the West, of the extension of transportation facilities and of the tremendous natural resources of the country, to omit other elements, are not mentioned. Immigrants have been a blessing, it is argued, and instead of driving out the native laborer, he has driven himself out by his refusal to do the work he considered fit only for Irish, for Germans, for Italians, or for some other newly arrived people. Only in one way has the immigrant harmed us—he has made us a nation without manners, as the author essays to prove at length. For the black man little good is to be said. His influence on the Southerner was disastrous. He "made a whole people brutal and cowardly." If the author be right in this, it is hard to explain our Civil War. The negro lowered "the whole moral tone of the South." "For nearly two hundred and fifty years the black man worked corruption," he "corrupted the morals, manners and character of his white master."

The last hundred pages of the book discuss the Civil War and the new influences which have come as the result of the Spanish-American War and our tariff policy. The summary of our recent development is not encouraging. After his study of the "Harvesting of a Nation," as Mr. Low calls his second volume in its subtitle, we are told that "The American brain, up to the present time, has been a distinct disappointment to the well-wishers of America. . . . The American mind has become shallow, almost childish . . . a mind with neither breadth nor grasp. This mentality colors the whole life and thought of the people. . . . It is the American way." Fortunately for Americans, they are not bound to accept Mr. Low's estimate of their harvest.

**Lowell, P.** *The Soul of the Far East*. Pp. x, 226. Price, \$1.60. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

**Lucas, Charles** (Ed.). *A Historical Geography of the British Colonies*. Vol. v, Part iv, Newfoundland, by J. D. Rogers. Pp. xii, 274. Price, 4/6. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1911.

This little volume, the latest in the excellent series by Sir Charles Lucas, of "histories laying special stress on geographical considerations," is a charmingly written and valuable study of a little known region. For though "Newfoundland has lived a continuous life and has kept its identity inviolate for more than 300 years," its relations with the outside world have been few and narrow.

Throughout nearly its whole history, twilight has brooded over this land, and it has remained almost up to date "something more than a fishing ground, and something less than a colony. . . . The visitors who came and went, like tides and winds . . . had the first century to themselves; . . . they lived like seals, and thought like geologists. To them Newfoundland was little more than a sunken fishing bank, with a dry top here and there" (p. 109). For "the Newfoundlanders are men of one idea, and that idea is fish, . . . and in Newfoundland fish means cod" (p. 193).



The volume is avowedly a history, though the author is well aware that it is a history shaped at every turn by forces purely geographic. In the chapters on Fish and Fish-bait, the logic of this geographic control is charmingly presented; for example: "The sea has asserted its sway over the Newfoundlanders: they are wedded with the sea, and their children's eyes change color with the sea! Cod, seal, herring, whale, and the clownish lobster mould their destiny, and their pathway to reality lies through a life dedicated to the sea."

**McGiffert, A. C.** *Martin Luther—The Man and His Work.* Pp. xi, 397. Price, \$3.00. New York: Century Company, 1911.

This is a model biographical work. It gives a clear picture of Luther the man; it discusses and estimates his work in a scholarly manner, and it places the Reformer and the Reformation in their true historical setting. The volume will be of permanent value to students of history. The author's style is simple, direct, and altogether pleasing, and this is as true of the many translated paragraphs from Luther's works as of the author's own writing. The numerous illustrations add to the attractiveness and to the value of the volume.

**Miller, T. S.** *The American Cotton System.* Pp. xi, 294. Price, \$1.50. Austin, Texas: Austin Printing Company.

This book is an attempt by a practical cotton dealer to make clear the processes involved in the grading and handling of cotton. There is a thirty-five-page description of cotton growing all over the world; another chapter on classification, emphasizing the difficulties of making many grades of an almost microscopic fiber which defies all mechanical means of grading. The description of cotton exchanges is detailed, and the book ends with 150 pages of the Arithmetic of the American Cotton System, which will certainly enable one to handle all the operations necessary in the calculation of cotton transactions and which the author hoped might be used as a text by school teachers in cotton-growing sections of the South.

**Overlock, M. G.** *The Working People: Their Health and How to Protect It.* Pp. 293. Price, \$2.00. Boston: Boston Health Book Publishing Company, 1911.

The title of this book is somewhat misleading. It might better be called: "Health and How to Protect It." Except for very brief discussions on such topics as The Modern Factory and What it Means to the People Employed Therein, the sixty-three chapters into which the 293 pages of the book are divided, deal with general topics of health, *e. g.*, Dyspepsia, and How to Avoid It; Rheumatism, Its Cause and Prevention, and Measles a Dangerous Disease and Why. The style of the book is popular, its language untechnical and in places verbose. It may serve a purpose in popularizing some of the common rules of health. One cannot but feel that a more thorough treatment of fewer subjects would have improved the book. The author should be congratulated, however, on his effort to treat the problems of health and disease from a social point of view.



**Paddock, W.** *Fruit Growing in Arid Regions.* Pp. xx, 395. Price, \$1.50.

New York: Macmillan Company.

This book, by two professors in the Colorado Agricultural College, is a descriptive and practical handbook of an industry which has become of national note in the short time since the first important shipments of fruit outside of Colorado were made from Grand Junction in 1897. The industry is adapted to a surprisingly small area. "Generally speaking, the fruit belt on the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, with the exception noted above, consists of an irregular area along the foothills not over ten miles in width. Beyond this distance, the limits of the profitable production of tree-fruits at present are soon reached. Success is due to the protection afforded by the mountain range from drying winds and hailstorms, from cold in winter and from late spring frosts."

Within these limited areas we are having a rapid redistribution of population and the evolution of an interesting type of community. "Irrigation divides and subdivides lands into small home tracts. The best examples of communities of small farms in the United States are to be seen in various parts of California. Here may be found collections of farms of a few acres in extent, and each self-supporting and, in many instances, yielding the owner a good income. These communities often extend over hundreds of acres, and yet the homes are so close together as to suggest to the traveler that he is passing through the suburbs of a large city.

"This centralizing movement has already begun in the Rocky Mountain region, as one may see by visiting the more prosperous communities in any one of the several states, such as the Grand Valley in Colorado, the Cache Valley in Utah, the Willamette Valley in Oregon, the Yakima Valley in Washington, the Payette Valley in Idaho, Bitter Root Valley in Montana, the Mesilla Valley in New Mexico, and many others. We may confidently expect to see this movement increase very rapidly in the near future, and the basis of this intensive farming will be the various horticultural products."

For the prosecution of these horticultural industries the book appears to be a good guide. The introduction is written by L. H. Bailey.

**Robinson, L. N.** *Criminal Statistics in the United States.* Pp. viii, 104.

Price, \$1.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1911.

This monograph is a brief contribution to the too much neglected subject of criminal statistics. In the introductory chapter the author defines his terms such as judicial and prison criminal statistics, statistics of crime, statistics of criminals, etc. The next two chapters deal with the origin and growth and the essential nature and meaning of federal criminal statistics. In this connection the author makes the important criticism that statistics of prison population taken on a certain day do not indicate the amount of crime at a point of time but over an indefinite period of time. The fourth and fifth chapters describe the state judicial and prison criminal statistics. The faults of these statistics he attributes to four causes; first, that these statistics have been gathered for administrative as well as scientific purposes; second, the ignorance of the principles and methods of statistical science of those who have collected them; third, the indifference of the



officials toward this work, and fourth, political appointments of secretaries of state boards of charities and other officials who have had charge of this work.

The last chapter is on the reorganization of criminal statistics in the United States, and proposes that the federal census bureau prepare a plan for the gathering of these statistics in co-operation with the state governments, as has been done for mortality statistics, and then induce as many of the states as possible to accept it. Unfortunately this chapter is very brief and does not work out this plan in detail. There is added a brief appendix on the increase of crime in which the author criticises those who have attempted to measure the changes in the volume of crime on the basis of untrustworthy and inadequate statistics.

**Saleilles, R.** *The Individualization of Punishment.* Pp. xlv, 322. Price, \$4.50. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1911.

**Smith, J. H.** *The Annexation of Texas.* Pp. ix, 496. Price, \$3.00. New York: Baker and Taylor Company, 1911.

**Thwing, C. F.** *Universities of the World.* Pp. xv, 284. Price, \$2.25. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

**Wood, M. E.** *The New Italy.* Pp. xiv, 406. Price, \$1.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1911.

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#### REVIEWS

**Adams, Charles F.** *Studies, Military and Diplomatic. 1775-1865.* Pp. v, 424. Price, \$2.50. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

Under the subtitle, "Military Studies," Mr. Adams publishes four papers on the Revolution, one paper on the War of 1812, and three on some phases of the Civil War. Under the subtitle, "Diplomatic Studies," two papers are published, one relating to the purchase of the Laird ironclads and the other to the attitude of Queen Victoria toward the American Civil War. The chapters on the Revolution include studies of the battle of Bunker Hill, the battle of Long Island, the campaign of 1777, and Washington's use of cavalry. All of these papers are highly suggestive—fine products of historical scholarship combined with very practical experience. Mr. Adams comes to the general conclusion that at the battles of Bunker Hill and Long Island, and in the campaign of 1777, the American forces were so badly led, and their leaders made so many and such serious blunders, that they were saved from total destruction only by the superior capacity of the British for blundering. He further points out that Washington did not, until late in the war, understand the value of cavalry and consequently made little use of it. These shortcomings of Washington and other American leaders were due to those very qualities that had made them first-class frontier-fighters; they were trained to frontier Indian methods of fighting and were not accustomed to the military conditions which prevailed on the



seacoast. Somewhat the same view is taken of the campaign which ended in the battle of New Orleans, in 1815. The British, Mr. Adams thinks, made the worst possible use of the situation. The correct policy should have been to cross the river and flank the Americans at New Orleans. To account for the plan pursued he makes a study of Pakenham's truly British career and character and comes to the conclusion that he was probably irritated into making the fatal front attack by the criticisms of Admiral Cochrane. Under the titles *The Ethics of Secession* and *Lee's Centennial*, he publishes the addresses delivered at Washington and Lee University upon the occasion of the Robert E. Lee Centennial, and at Charleston, South Carolina, before the New England Society. The addresses contain a fine-tempered examination of the controversies over the nature of the American Government. He arrives, practically, at a general conclusion that both the North and South were right. This country owes much to the Adamses, and by no means the least debt is due for these two addresses. The last military paper is devoted to a criticism of Mr. Rhodes' handling of certain Civil War subjects. The author believes that Mr. Rhodes has inadequately treated the activities of the Union navy during the Civil War, the Southern belief that "cotton is king," the destructive nature of Sherman's march through Georgia and the Carolinas, and the military incapacity of General Benjamin Butler.

Under the title of *An Historical Residuum*, Mr. Adams discusses the value or lack of value of personal recollections as a source of history and illustrates by dissecting the recollections of individuals in regard to an incident connected with the purchase by the United States of the Laird rams which were being built for the Confederacy. In the paper on "Queen Victoria and the Civil War," the author criticises the popular belief that Queen Victoria was actively in favor of the Union during the Civil War, and that it was her personal influence which kept the two countries from going to war. It is Mr. Adams' view that Queen Victoria had no particular liking for the North, certainly no love at all for democracy, but that she was, on principle, opposed to war. The failure of England to recognize the Confederacy was probably due to personal jealousies among the members of the British cabinet, not to any personal influence of Queen Victoria.

WALTER L. FLEMING.

*Louisiana State University.*

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**Allen, William H.** *Woman's Part in Government.* Pp. xv, 377. Price, \$1.50. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1911.

"*Woman's Part in Government*," by Mr. William H. Allen, is described as a new kind of book about government. It is a handbook on straight-seeing, straight-thinking and straight-acting on public questions between election times. It aims, says Mr. Allen, "not to settle but to raise questions, to encourage self-analysis and study of local conditions, and to stimulate interest in methods and next steps for getting done what we all agree should be done to make democracy efficient." In fact, it represents a very careful survey of all the minute details of government which have in the past been so woefully neglected.



Mr. Allen's chief error, it seems to me, lies in the title of the book and in the sub-heading, "Whether she votes or not." He does not indicate why the woman any more than the man should assume as her work the performance of unpleasant details which men have neglected in their conduct of government in the past. In short, Mr. Allen seeks to limit unjustifiably the sphere of woman. He insinuates that the minutiae of administrative work which are controlled and initiated by men will give sufficient scope for her energies. He says repeatedly "the ballot will not help child labor," "the ballot will not make budgets," "the ballot will not keep children in school," and concludes therefrom that woman can be an efficient citizen whether she votes or not. His error is caused, it seems to me, by his fundamental misconception of the nature of women. He needs to realize, as Dr. Patten says, that a woman is a distinct entity in herself, not a defective man.

NELLIE MARGUERITE SEEDS NEARING.

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Ashley, R. L. *The American Federal State*. Pp. xlvii, 629. Price, \$2.00. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

This is a revised edition of a textbook in Civics, which was originally published in 1902, and which was reviewed in this journal shortly after its publication. The revision has taken the form mainly of correcting certain errors and of bringing statements of fact and statistical material down to date. Some of the valuable books on American government which have appeared since the original edition of this volume was issued are mentioned in a brief bibliography, but, with few exceptions, no new references have been inserted throughout the body of the book.

The only new material of any importance which is added is a chapter (xxix) dealing with natural resources and the conservation movement. This treats of conservation in general, and then takes up in turn the national land policy, forests, water, waterways and minerals. Valuable as this material is, it is at least questionable whether an allotment of twenty pages to conservation and of only four pages to the tariff, three to trusts and three to the regulation of railways, gives a proper perspective of present-day conditions.

Along several lines have important changes taken place in American government during the past decade. Colonial governments and colonial policies have been established, and colonial problems have arisen. New devices in city government have also been put into operation. The author's treatment of both these topics remains most inadequate. A single page is given to colonial policy, colonial government and colonial problems combined. The Philippines and Porto Rico are disposed of in a paragraph of nine lines. Hawaii and the Panama Canal are only referred to incidentally, and the Canal Zone is not mentioned.

Similarly, in dealing with municipal affairs, government by commission is disposed of in a paragraph of twelve lines, under the topic "The Council: Organization," no attempt being made to tell what is meant by "commission government." The discussion of the initiative, referendum and recall is antiquated, and but little reference is made to important recent



social and economic legislation. The treatment of political parties makes no note of the important developments since 1900 in party groupings and policies.

While this is a valuable manual, especially for teachers who wish to combine a considerable amount of American History with their teaching of Civics, its treatment of present-day government and politics must be considerably supplemented by a well-informed teacher or by extensive collateral reading on the part of students.

RAYMOND GARFIELD GETTELL.

*Trinity College.*

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Cameron, Agnes D. *The New North*. Pp. xv, 398. Price, \$3.00. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

One can now go by regular steamer to the Arctic Ocean via the Athabaska, Slave and Mackenzie Rivers. The first season that this was in operation, Miss Cameron, with one woman companion, took the journey. Her record of it is very scrappy and very interesting reading. The book is a fine piece of workmanship and well illustrated.

The author tells no end of anecdotes about the country and the people. Possibly she is a little optimistic. Certainly she is well impressed by the essential good qualities of the natives, and shows pictures of some of them that might well make Caucasian parents envious if complexion could be changed a bit. Miss Cameron's appreciation of the Arctic and Subarctic native hints at a need of reconstruction of our definition of savages. Here is one of her many tributes to the Esquimaux:

"The Eskimo realizes that the pleasure of life is in pursuit, not in acquisition. Where wants are many, joys are few; the very austerity of his life has made a man of him. Laying up few treasures for the elements to corrupt, accumulating no property except a little, a very little, of the kind designated by Wemmick as 'portable,' he, to better and saner effect than any man, decreases the denominator of his wants instead of increasing the numerator of his havings. Surrounded by the paleocrystic ice, the genial current of his soul has not been frozen by that ice. An Eskimo family accepts life with a smile and, in the faith of little children, goes on its way.

"An old Scot once prayed, 'O Lord send down Thy worshippin' people at this time the savin' grace o' continuance.' Only one man has less need to pray that prayer than the Scot himself, and that man is the Eskimo. The Indian eats and sleeps as his wife works, but while there is spearhead to fashion or net to mend, the clever hands of the Eskimo are never idle. Thrifty as a Scot, ingenious as a Yankee, every bit of the little property that he has is well kept. You find around this igloo no broken sled-runner, untrustworthy fishing gear, nor worn-out dog harness. Civilization has nothing to teach this man concerning clothing, house building or Arctic travel."

A smaller part of the book gives an account of the pushing white man's frontier in the wheat belt.

J. RUSSELL SMITH.

*University of Pennsylvania.*



**Carver, Thomas N.** *Principles of Rural Economics.* Pp. xx, 386. Price, \$1.30. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1911.

This book is an economic and literary treat. The author is professor of political economy in Harvard University and, as is well known, is perfectly capable of handling in a masterful manner any phase of the history and theory of political economy. There may be some question, however, at first sight as to the author's presumption in dealing with so difficult a subject as the whole range of rural economy and social life; but he disposes of this objection in his preface by showing that he grew up on a farm in the upper Mississippi Valley, later farmed independently on the Pacific coast, traveled extensively in this country and in Europe studying farming and farm life, and "has been for several years teaching the subject of rural economics to classes varying in size from seventy-five to a hundred students in Harvard University." The author must be regarded, therefore, as perfectly capable of handling his theme from the historical, theoretical and practical points of view.

The subject of rural economics is discussed under the following chapter: General principles, historical sketch of modern agriculture, the factors of agricultural production, management as a factor in agricultural production, the distribution of the agricultural income and, lastly, the problems of rural social life. Each chapter is discussed by divisions and by topics, so that, while it may be taken up and read by anyone interested in the rural problems of to-day, it may be used as a textbook in rural economy for which its preparation was undoubtedly primarily intended.

The book is by no means technical in nature, and, while it is plain that the author is familiar with the technique of agriculture, it is so simply and clearly expressed that the ordinary reader will have no difficulty in following the arguments. Nor is there anything one-sided about this volume. Both the advantages and disadvantages of country life are pointed out, but the importance of the agricultural industry to our national welfare is never lost to view. Hence, the author speaks with no uncertain sound as to the fads and fancies of much of our political and social life, and his shafts of witticism, satire and sound common sense irrigate an otherwise apparently dry subject and put new life into political economy. If every professor of political economy in the country would procure a copy of this book, thoroughly digest its contents, imbibe its spirit of optimism and incorporate its teachings into class-room work, never again would it be said that political economy is the "dismal science." It is possible that the reviewer's predilection for country life and surroundings makes him over-zealous in this regard, but he cannot help feeling that Professor Carver saw a great light, moved out of the valley of dry bones, and is bearing a common-sense, earnest message to his fellow-professors, to students and to thoughtful citizens regarding the great industry of agriculture and its importance to our future national life.

At the same time, there is one slight criticism which the reviewer would mention—namely, that the section on "agricultural education" (p. 115) could be improved by adding information regarding the farmers' institutes, com-



munity high schools and other newer features of agricultural extension work which are growing factors of educational rural life; and that the subject of co-operation (pp. 274, 278), in view of its economic importance, is worthy a little more space than it now receives.

A good bibliography and a fair index round out the contents of this little volume, which, in view of its subject matter, as well as its method of treatment, it is to be hoped will have a wide circulation among all classes of intelligent readers.

JAMES B. MORMAN.

Kensington, Md.

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*The Catholic Encyclopedia.* Volumes ix, Pp. xv, 800; x Pp. xv, 800; xi Pp. xv, 799; xii Pp. xv, 800. Price, \$6.00 per vol. New York: Robert Appleton Company, 1911-12.

The rapidity with which this work is being brought out is shown by the appearance of four new volumes in the last sixteen months, leaving but three more to complete the fifteen volumes of the series. These recent publications, covering the subjects from *LaPrade* to *Reuss*, fully maintain the high reputation of the earlier ones for scholarly treatment and the inclusion of a wide range of subjects. No description of the plan of the work is required at this late day, nor is there need of any general terms of praise in view of the universally favorable reception of the earlier portions by both American and European reviewers. A better idea of the scope and value of the recent volumes can be given by enumerating a few of the more important subjects treated therein.

Among the church institutions taken up are the *Mass*—its liturgy being treated by Dr. Fortescue, of Hertfordshire, England; its music by Dr. Henry, of Philadelphia, and the sacrifice of the Mass, its dogma, history and the practical questions concerning it, ably discussed by Prof. Pohle, of the University of Breslau; the article *Legate* is prepared by Dr. Cerretti, Auditor of the Apostolic Delegation at Washington, and *Nuncio* by Prof. Kirsch, of the University of Fribourg; general monastic institutions are treated under *Monasteries, double*, by G. C. Alston, of Downside Abbey; *Suppression of Monasteries*, by J. M. Besse, Director of the "Revue Mabillon," and Dr. Gasquet, Abbot President of the English Benedictines; *Monasticism in the West*, by G. R. Huddleston, *in the East*, by F. J. Bacchus and Dr. Fortescue; *Mendicant Friars*, by L. Oliger; *Nuns*, by Prof. Vermeersch, of Louvain; *Preachers* (Dominicans), by Dr. Mandonnet, Rector of the University of Fribourg; and *Military Orders*, by Prof. Moeller, of Louvain. *Propaganda* is an unusually instructive article by Mgr. Benigni, giving the history, organization and methods of procedure of this most important of the Roman Congregations; while under *Pope* the institution of the papacy is given full treatment by G. H. Joyce, of St. Asaph, Wales, though rather from a theological than a historical point of view.

Under legal institutions are to be found such topics as *Canon Law* by Prof. Boudinhon, of Paris; *Civil Law as Influenced by the Church*, by Dr.



Schaeffer; *Common Law and Capital Punishment*, by J. W. Willis; *International Law*, by W. G. Smith, of Philadelphia; *Roman Law and Pandects*, by Dr. J. I. Kelly, formerly Dean of the Faculty of Law in Louisiana State University; *Legacies*, by Prof. Van Hove, of Louvain; *Mortmain*, by C. W. Sloane.

Among the religious articles that on the *Reformation*, by Prof. Kirsch, of Fribourg, is especially noteworthy. His frank discussion of the causes of the movement bring him to much the same conclusions as those expressed by Mr. Lea in the Cambridge Modern History, though he deals with the subject in much less detail. His judgment as to the methods and results of the Protestant movement is naturally unfavorable, but the whole tone of the article gives a most favorable impression of fair-mindedness as well as of scholarship. It would not be easy to find elsewhere so able a treatment of the subject in the same space. Other religious articles of note are *Protestantism*, by Dr. Wilhelm; *Paganism*, by C. C. Martindale; *Occult Art*, by Prof. Arentzen; *Missions*, *Mormons*, *Mohammedanism*, *Modernism*.

Topics of general interest find a large place in these four volumes. As examples, may be cited the descriptions of various Indian tribes by Mr. Mooney, of the Bureau of American Ethnology; a history of Medicine by Dr. Sengfelder, of the University of Vienna, and of Physics by Prof. Duhem, of Bordeaux; a description of the various features of church architecture by Mr. Cram, of Boston; *Palaeography*, by Prof. Bréhier; *Palaeontology*, by Dr. Waagen, of Vienna; *Latin Language* and *Latin Literature in the Middle Ages*, by Prof. Degert, of Toulouse, Prof. Lejay, of Paris, and Father Sheid; Periodical Literature, a survey of Catholic current literature in the various countries of the world, giving lists of all the important publications and thus furnishing information it would be impossible to obtain in any other one place; with many other subjects, such as *Migrations*, *Masons*, *Music*, *Mosaics*, *Names*, *Numismatics*, *Church Property*, *Population Theories*, *Race*, *Renaissance*, etc.

The references and literature cited at the end of each article seem at times incomplete. An effort has been made to give references in English where possible, but in the excellent biography of Napoleon one misses, for instance, Fournier's *Life of Napoleon*, and in the article on Ordeals, Mr. Lea's *Superstition and Force*, while similar omissions may be found in the foreign bibliographies as in the absence of Luchaire's studies in connection with the fourth Lateran Council or Krusch's studies on St. Remigius. Occasionally, also, one is inclined to criticise the editor's choice of contributors for certain articles, as when the subject of Demoniacal Possession is given to a professor of moral theology instead of to a psychologist, or when the Philippine Islands is discussed by one who shows so evident an anti-American bias as Father Finegan, of Manila. Such criticisms are only occasionally called for, however, and the editors may well be proud of the work of reference they are producing.

A. C. HOWLAND.

University of Pennsylvania.



Crozier, John B. *Sociology Applied to Practical Politics*. Pp. xi, 320. Price, \$3.00. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1911.

This volume is a collection of eighteen miscellaneous essays and articles previously published in the "Fortnightly Review" and other English periodicals during the period of 1902 to 1911. They have been grouped by the author into three "Books" entitled, respectively, A Challenge to Socialism, Sociology and Politics, and Sociology and Political Economy. The collection is presented as an illustration of the application to practical politics of the principles developed by the author in his previous writings and is, therefore, the completion of a definite scheme. The first volume in this logical series is his *Civilization and Progress*, in which the "First Principles of Sociology," with their Laws and Dependencies, are developed. The second is the *History of Intellectual Development*, Volume III, where he exhibits "the practical use to which such First Principles might be put if they were applied to practical Politics." The present volume goes further. It endeavors to show that "if sociology is fully to justify itself as a science whose principles cannot be neglected with impunity by practical statesmen, it ought to render some assistance to the solution of the practical, social and economic problems of the passing day as well."

Two somewhat unfortunate characteristics mar the present volume and distinguish it from the preceding works. In the first place it is fragmentary and without any consistent program. It treats detached and miscellaneous topics. This is an inevitable defect of a collection of articles running through a series of years. In the second place the majority of the articles are of a controversial and polemic character rather than positive and inductive studies. Both of these criticisms are explained in the following sentence from the author's introduction, though it is questionable whether they justify the method. He says: "Accordingly, when questions like those of Socialism, Tariff Reform, Imperial Preference, the Mixing of Races, Race Degeneration, etc., chanced to come to the front, I seized the opportunity to get a hearing, in one or the other of our Reviews, for the treatment of them from the side of Sociology." It is the method pursued which leads to extravagance of statement as when he charges Marx with deception and deceit (though unintentional), pp. 12 and 13, or fails to regard him as a serious (even if mistaken) economist, p. 63, and to discuss the work of Kidd, Durkheim, Buckle, Comte and even Spencer who he says has done nothing whatever toward establishing a Science of Sociology (p. 117) "as mere lyrics," to use the words which he employs to describe Mr. Kidd's attitude toward these great writers, p. 80.

In the constructive elements, which appear amid much negative and controversial material, the book is strong and vigorous and thought-provoking. The restatement of his sociological program (p. 118) will be found to be stimulating and sufficiently comprehensive to merit the approval of most American Sociologists, none of whom is so much as mentioned in the volume.

J. P. LICHTENBERGER.

*University of Pennsylvania.*



**Du Bois, W. E. B., and Dill, A. G. (Ed.).** *The College-bred Negro American.* Pp. 104. Price, \$0.75. Atlanta, Ga.: Atlanta University Press.

This is a companion to a study of the same subject in 1900, and is another of this valuable series on the Negro. The Negro college, the Negro and the white colleges of the North and the Negro graduate are well presented.

About thirty-two colored institutions do college work; thirteen of these are "leading colleges according to Carnegie Foundation units" and to the number of students. Almost all do some high school or "College preparatory" work. But this is explained as absolutely necessary since the South has been tardy in providing high schools for Negro children.

Many of the Northern colleges welcome Negro students; some do not. The special reports on the thirty-four Negro graduates of Iowa colleges and on the sixty graduates and 200 matriculates since 1870 of the University of Kansas are favorable.

Ascertained records show that 3,856 persons of Negro descent have been graduated from American colleges; the first one in 1823, but all save twenty-eight since 1860. Of these, 2,964 were from Negro colleges and 693 from non-Negro colleges. Estimates of Negro graduates of white colleges that keep no record of race or nationality bring the total to about 5,000.

Statistics compiled from replies of 802 living graduates show that the large majority of the Southern born have remained South to labor among their people and many Northern born Negro graduates have come South for the same purpose. Conjugal condition of graduates and the large average number of living children portray their leadership in needed home making.

Both occupations and avocations furnish evidence that they are "usefully employed" . . . "largely in the work of leadership." Of the total, 53.8 per cent were teaching; 20 per cent were preaching; 7 per cent were practicing medicine, and 3.8 per cent, the law. These professional men have been and are "of great importance in the educational, social and economic uplift of the Negro race in America." Their avocations included activities in learned societies, in publication, in public offices, in charitable work, etc.

The study concludes that, although "hampered by prejudice and its accompanying discriminations as well as by lack of opportunity," these graduates of less than fifty years are hopeful of the future of the Negro race in America; they show remarkable results for the Negro college; the demand for them in many fields is greater than the supply, and that the college-bred Negro is of especial significance to the Negro and the nation.

GEORGE EDMUND HAYNES.

*Fisk University, Nashville, Tenn.*

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**Harris, G. M.** *Problems of Local Government.* Pp. 483. Price, 10/6. London: P. S. King & Son, 1911.

Mr. Harris, who is Secretary to the County Councils' Association of England and Wales, has undertaken in this volume to give some idea of the papers and discussions at the first International Congress on the Administrative Sciences, held at Brussels, in July, 1910. The first part, comprising about



one-third of the book, is a survey of the papers and proceedings of the Congress, giving a comparative analysis of the machinery and functions of local government in the principal countries. This survey is necessarily condensed; and limited, as it is, to the papers presented at the Congress, there are some important omissions. Thus, as Mr. Harris notes, there is no adequate account of institutions in Germany and Russia; and only one paper—on county government—dealing with local government in the United States. The other European countries and Brazil are well represented; and the survey adds much to the information available about local government in these countries, for many of which there had hitherto been no accessible accounts in English.

Among the many topics discussed special mention may be made of town planning, industrial undertakings, relations between the local authorities and the central government, preparation for and advancement in the public service, the protection of the private individuals, and documentation. One of the most striking features is the sympathetic discussion of the French system of administrative courts by an English writer. Mr. Harris, indeed, feels that the administrative departments of the central government in England are becoming in large measure free from judicial control.

The second, and larger, part of the volume contains in full the twenty-one papers presented to the Congress on Local Government in England, Wales and Scotland, and also three papers on the central departments of Agriculture in Great Britain, Holland and the United States. The various papers on local institutions contain considerable duplication; but together throw a good deal of light on the present day problems of local government in Great Britain. Three of the papers are by Sir H. George Fordham, Chairman of the Cambridgeshire County Council, and among the other contributors may be noted Edward Jenks and Sidney Webb.

An appendix contains an alphabetical list of the foreign authors of papers with the titles of their papers, which have been published in full, in various languages, in the official proceedings of the Congress.

JOHN A. FAIRLIE.

*University of Illinois.*

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**Hobhouse, L. T.** *Liberalism*. Pp. 254. Price, 75 cents. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1911.

The first chapter of this suggestive volume tersely discusses the authoritarian government that preceded the modern state. In the religious, political, economic and social revolt against that kind of government, the author finds the historical beginnings of Liberalism. The main points at which Liberalism assailed the old order are stated in such historic terms as civil liberty, taxation without representation, freedom from domination of class or property, and equality of women. Having thus stated the historical elements in the evolution of Liberalism, the author proceeds to discuss the movement in theory, averring that "Great changes are not caused by ideas alone; but they are not effected without ideas."

From the theory of the natural order, the author moves on through Bent-



ham's Greatest Happiness principle to the theory of laissez-faire, making a significant distinction between social and unsocial freedom, through the modifications made by Gladstone and Mill, to the heart of Liberalism. "The heart of Liberalism is the understanding that progress is not a matter of mechanical contrivance, but of the liberation of living spiritual energy." In stating the relation between the state and the individual, the author makes clear that the conscience of the community has its rights as much as the conscience of the individual, and that the "right to work" and the right to a "living wage" are just as valid as the rights of person or property. He clearly distinguishes between Liberalism and Socialism, averring that economic Liberalism "seeks to do justice to the social and individual factors in industry alike, as opposed to an abstract Socialism which emphasizes the one side and an abstract Individualism which leans its whole weight on the other." Democracy is the development of social interest and the problem of all government is to bring home to each individual a sense of social responsibility.

The book closes with an inclusive and illuminating discussion of the present and future problems of Liberalism, such as pensions to wage-earners, the relations between the two houses of Parliament, relations between the state and land, and relations between the state and the wage-earner.

Professor Hobhouse is not constructing Utopias. His science is founded on the much sounder basis of social and political experience. Viewed either as a work on practical social and political problems, or as a work on political and social theory, the book is a most valuable contribution. The author has balanced his theories with social and political experience and has keenly analyzed social and political experience for their deeper meanings.

CLYDE L. KING,

*University of Pennsylvania.*

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**Hughan, J. W.** *American Socialism of the Present Day.* Pp. x, 265. Price, \$1.25. New York: John Lane Company, 1911.

All fair-minded students of American social problems will welcome this sympathetic yet critical, detailed yet well balanced, study of a movement now commanding considerable popular attention. The book is the result of a successful endeavor to give a picture of present-day American Socialism, with special reference to the principal Socialist body in the United States, the Socialist Party. The writer takes up in turn the relations of the Marxian doctrine to the American movement, the modern conceptions of the Socialist commonwealth, and the immediate demands of the Socialist Party, illustrating each from quotations from American leaders and platforms. The method of treatment is such as acquaints the reader with not only the spirit of the movement but its personnel as well. No small part of the value and interest of the book lies in its discussion of the problems of socialism facing those within its ranks, such for example, as the questions of the attitude of Socialism toward the organization of a labor party in America analogous to that existing in England, its relation to the unions, both industrial and craft, and its attitude toward the middle class independent farmer.



The main conclusions of the author are tersely summarized in the following quotations:

"The inquiry has shown a movement whose doctrine is professedly Marxian and at most points actually so. The explanation of crises by a special overproduction theory has been largely superseded, the expectation of catastrophe materially modified, and the existence of surplus value based more and more upon induction from the facts of industry than upon the Marxian labor theory. The economic interpretation of history, however, and preeminently the class struggle doctrine, constitute the foundation of Socialist teaching in the United States." . . . "The tendency of original Marxian thought in America, in any case, is distinctly away from the discussion of theory, Revisionist or the contrary. Socialism, like religion, shares at present the trend of investigation and education toward the concrete and the utilitarian, rather than to the abstract, and the United States has entered upon Socialist activity at a state when the issue is too vital to give free play to the spirit of pure philosophy."

As a political party, American Socialism is pictured as possessing a definite organization characterized by "discipline, extreme democracy, and internationalism." With the exception of the non-affiliated opportunists, and the Socialist Labor Party, the party is a united body, though there are important internal differences in policy, shading from the constructionists on the right to the revolutionists on the left. In such important points as allegiance to the Marxian philosophy in general, acceptance of the discipline of the Socialist Party, and assent, with the exception of certain immediate demands to the national platform, the Socialists of the United States are in mutual accord.

The study fills a long felt need in bringing together in small compass up-to-date, impartial information about a movement which has ceased being of interest to the Socialist alone.

FRANK D. WATSON.

*New York School of Philanthropy.*

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Huntington, E. *Palestine and its Transformation*. Pp. xvii, 443. Price, \$2.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1911.

The main theme of this book is the relation of the land surface and the climate of Palestine to the people, at different times in the history of the region. While the character of the land surface has been changed but little since earliest historic times, the author believes that the climate has changed greatly. Progressive dessication has made Palestine of the present quite unlike Palestine of the ancient world. This is the transformation.

In elaborating this idea of climatic change, the author describes the geographic features of the different natural divisions of Palestine, as they were in ancient times and as they are now. In so doing sharp contrasts are drawn between such sections as the land of the Phœnicians and the land of the Jews, Judea and the land of the Moabites, Samaria and Galilee. The intimate relation of the character of the country to the life of the people is demonstrated beyond doubt; thus the seclusion of Judea, sheltering its



people among the low hills of the plateau, produced a type of people entirely different from those in the open, low plains of Sharon and along the Phœnician coast. The positive character of the Jew and the lack of positive characteristics among the Philistines are ascribed to these differences of surroundings.

Following the chapters which discuss the effect of the country on the people of Biblical days, the author devotes several concluding chapters to evidences of permanent changes of the climate, in respect to amount of rainfall. The climate of ancient Palestine is described, and evidences that it has changed are found in fluctuations of the level of the Dead Sea; in the ruins of ancient towns where water does not now exist; in the signs of former extensive cultivation, where naked rock now forms much of the surface. Some of these things, as the naked rock, where vineyards and olive groves once stood, have been ascribed to unwise deforestation. But the author is not inclined to accept that view. A change from moist conditions to aridity has been, he believes, a more potent factor. Reading the book certainly inclines one to accept the author's interpretation, so vividly and so convincingly are the transformations pictured.

Not every reader will be willing to go as far as the author does in accounting for human conditions and traits on the physical basis. Some question may be raised about the reliability of traditional accounts of Palestine, for use as scientific evidence. Objection may be made to some interpolated explanations, as the effect of mountains on rainfall (p. 86), and the rather profitless comparison of Palestine and California. But no one can deny that the book is charmingly written outside these parts, and that it makes most real the setting of many Biblical stories, formerly only half appreciated.

As an example of geographic investigation, thoroughly done and well written, few recent books contain so much of human interest.

WALTER S. TOWER.

*University of Chicago.*

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**Hutchinson, Woods.** *We and Our Children.* Pp. x, 371. Price, \$1.20. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1911.

Of the great variety of readers interested in any serious discussion of children, some will approve of "We and Our Children," because it is modern, biological and essentially iconoclastic; others will admire the breezy, hearty way in which the author disposes of some of the "problems" which worry over-serious minds; still others will like the book for the many opportunities it offers them to differ with the writer. All will be interested because it is suggestive, stimulating and entertaining. Biological facts are used in a familiar, if not always exact way, the evolution of man in whole and in parts is assumed, and the outlook is forward to the stronger and better race. The book is really a popular discussion of eugenics.

Each page has a challenge, an attack, or an annihilation of some cherished tradition. "Piecing between meals," a custom no grown-up ever approves, in children, is endorsed. "A child's stomach must be stretched at



intervals, if it is to grow properly." Fortunately the youngsters are not likely to read the book. The American birth rate is satisfactory, although it has decreased from over five to three and a half in the past forty years. Better care and understanding of children have given us and other leading nations an accompanying increase in population. Dr. Hutchinson asserts that the American baby of to-day is the superior to any other baby in weight, length, and vitality, and this advantage is retained by the American school child.

The modern mother, particularly the American mother, is not a traitor to her family and her race, as is so often charged by eugenic alarmists. Judged by the "real and supreme test of any civilization the production of strong children," the modern mother is the best the world has ever produced, all of which is very gratifying to national pride; the disregard of controverting facts should be charged to emphasis or enthusiasm.

The idea introduced in the discussions of eyes and ears, that these necessary organs wear out before we are ready to dispense with them because they are designed by nature for only forty or fifty years' use and hygiene and sanitation have prolonged the average age to seventy, is not likely to find approval in the face of present knowledge. Nor again, when it is stated that an examination of the skulls of mound builders and American Indian tribes has shown that every known disease and deformity of the teeth which exists to-day existed hundreds of years ago, and that our teeth are as good as those of any race at any time. Current dental knowledge does not bear out the claim. One of the leading dentists of the country, also a scientist, says: "Such sweeping statements are unfair. It has been my good fortune to examine the skulls of different early peoples, here and abroad. While it is possible to occasionally find a decayed tooth and a deformity in the dental arch, they are not of the character observed in modern civilization—due to arrest of development of face and jaws."

Written for those who realize what a difficult job it is "to be a daddy," it would be a very ignorant or an extremely wise parent who could not profit by its reading.

A. H. YODER.

*New York School of Philanthropy.*

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**Johnson, Amandus.** *The Swedish Settlements on the Delaware: Their History and Relation to the Indians, Dutch and English, 1638-1664.* Two volumes. Pp. xxxii, 897. Price, \$6.00. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1911.

Two points are especially noteworthy on examination of Dr. Johnson's work; its documentation and the close mastery of detail. In order to elicit in full the truth and to write an exhaustive history of his subject he has spared no pains and has left no stone unturned in his keen search for material. It is safe to say that few investigators have come to the writing of a subject with such thoroughness of preparation, and that few works are based upon a surer foundation of authoritative documentary evidence. Dr. Johnson tells us in his preface that he made "three trips to Sweden, two to Holland and England, and one to Finland, in search of documents and



materials," and further, that he "has examined and read every document on the subject known to exist." His researches ranged from the material in the various archives at Stockholm, where he gathered the bulk of his material, to the University Library at Lund, the University Library and the Archives of the Consistory at Upsala, the Royal Archives at the Hague, and other depositories; thence across the channel to the British Museum and Public Record Office at London, and the Bodleian at Oxford. Neither has he neglected the material close at hand, in the Library of Congress, the Libraries of the Historical Societies of Pennsylvania and New York, and in other places. He has also familiarized himself with the source material in print and with the authoritative secondary writers on his subject. Approximately twenty-three hundred foot-notes, some of considerable length, bear ample witness to the thoroughness of his searches and the patience of his labor.

The history of a few Swedish settlements, which never numbered over a few hundred colonists and whose existence as a distinct Swedish colony lasted only a quarter of a century, is set forth carefully and with great elaboration of detail in nearly nine hundred pages of royal octavo size. One is inclined to wonder with the author whether so slender a colony in point of time and numbers deserves so much space and fullness of detail. But the work as it stands is justified. It has a distinctly local interest, setting forth carefully the manners and morals of the Swedish settlers, their political and social characteristics, and has a value from a genealogical point of view. But it has a wider interest. The book elucidates in a clear manner the relations of the Swedes with their neighbors in America, such as the Indians, the Dutch in New Netherlands and on the Delaware, the English in Virginia and Maryland and from far off New England. These relations also assume an international importance, bringing the Dutch, English and Swedes into conflict for commercial and territorial dominion in America. Neither has Dr. Johnson made the mistake, which so many of our writers on the colonies have made, of forgetting that the relation between the colony and mother country was intimate. The author devotes ninety pages, based largely upon original investigation, setting forth in an able manner the political, social and economic conditions in Sweden during the period preceding and during the colonizing movement, in order to elucidate the conditions under which colonization took place, the motives which actuated the project in America, and the methods under which the settlements were made. Such an account is of general value because of the light it throws on the European backgrounds of empire building in America. A few words as to organization of his material will throw some light on the treatment of his theme.

The work is divided into five books. Book I is devoted to a Swedish background of colonization during the period 1607-1660. Each of the following books is subdivided into two parts, one dealing with colonizing activities in the home country during a natural period, and the other with the activities of the colonists during the same time. This method of treatment not alone avoids confusion, but it has the added merit of making clear the interrelation and interaction of the colony and mother country, matters of great importance in the history of colonial policies.



The appendixes, covering some ninety pages, include brief biographies of the important persons connected with the colony, such as Papegoja, Printz, Ridder, Rising among the colonial officials, Oxenstierna, Brahe, Fleming and Spring among the Swedish statesmen; a list of the officers, soldiers, sailors, servants and settlers in the colony; documents and translation of documents, being largely instructions to the colonial officials, and a list of the preparations of the various expeditions to New Sweden. The work contains numerous illustrations, reproductions of MSS., pictures of the principal actors, and cuts of the houses, utensils, etc., of the settlers. There are six excellent maps, two of which, drawn by Dr. Johnson, are valuable as showing the territory and settlements of the Swedes.

The bibliography is exceptionally good, serving as a guide to the material, manuscript, printed collections of sources, and secondary works. The index is complete and the make-up of the book is splendid.

The work is a distinct contribution to our knowledge, and Dr. Johnson is to be congratulated on the excellence of his work.

W. T. ROOT.

*University of Wisconsin.*

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**King, F. H.** *Farmers of Forty Centuries.* Pp. ix, 441. Price, \$2.50. Madison, Wis.: Mrs. F. H. King, 1911.

The appreciators of things economic are but few, and those who appreciate and know agriculture are yet fewer. It is, therefore, a matter of congratulation that a scientific agriculturist has at last gone to the Orient and come back to tell and explain what he saw of Oriental agriculture along the Pacific littoral in a five-months' trip. Professor King has left us a valuable book and it is to be regretted that he did not have time to extend his studies to the interior parts of the Mongolian lands.

In the preface Liberty H. Bailey says: "For the most part, authorship of agricultural travel is yet undeveloped. The spirit of scientific inquiry must now be taken into this field, and all earth-conquest must be compared and the results be given to the people that work. Such is Professor King's book.

"It is the writing of a well-trained observer who went forth not to find diversion or to depict scenery and common wonders, but to study the actual conditions of life of agricultural peoples. We in North America are wont to think that we may instruct all the world in agriculture, because our agricultural wealth is great and our exports to less favored peoples have been heavy; but this wealth is great because our soil is fertile and new, and in large acreage for every person. We have really only begun to farm well. The first condition of farming is to maintain fertility. This condition the Oriental peoples have met, and they have solved it in their way. We may never adopt particular methods, but we can profit vastly by their experience. With the increase of personal wants in recent time, the newer countries may never reach such density of population as have Japan and China; but we must nevertheless learn the first lesson in the conservation of natural resources, which are the resources of the land. This is the message that Professor King brought home from the East."



One of the most conspicuous things about the agriculture of the United States is the widespread fact that the industry is not adjusted to the resources of the locality in which it is prosecuted. Here is a contrast pointed out by Professor King.

"To anyone who studies the agricultural methods of the Far East in the field it is evident that these people, centuries ago, came to appreciate the value of water in crop production as no other nations have. They have adapted conditions to crops and crops to conditions until with rice they have a cereal which permits the most intense fertilization and at the same time the ensuring of maximum yields against both drought and flood. With the practice of western nations in all humid climates, no matter how completely and highly we fertilize, in more years than not yields are reduced by a deficiency or an excess of water.

"It is difficult to convey, by word or map, an adequate conception of the magnitude of the systems of canalization which contribute primarily to rice culture. A conservative estimate would place the miles of canals in China at fully 200,000, and there are probably more miles of canal in China, Korea and Japan than there are miles of railroad in the United States. China alone has as many acres in rice each year as the United States has in wheat and her annual product is more than double and probably threefold our annual wheat crop, and yet the whole of the rice area produces at least one and sometimes two other crops each year."

How does the Chinaman live and make a living, and how does he conserve the fertility of the soil? These questions Professor King answers with a wealth of economic observations that make his book one that should be read by all those who wish to understand the economic side of affairs oriental.

There is much in China for us to learn. So much that Dr. King thinks that "One very appropriate and immensely helpful means for attacking this problem, and which should prove mutually helpful to citizen and state, would be for the higher educational institutions of all nations, instead of exchanging courtesies through their baseball teams, to send select bodies of their best students under competent leadership and by international agreement, both east and west, organizing therefrom investigating bodies each containing components of the eastern and western civilization and whose purpose it should be to study specifically set problems. Such a movement well conceived and directed, manned by the most capable young men, should create an international acquaintance and spread broadcast a body of important knowledge which would develop as the young men mature and contribute immensely toward world peace and world progress."

J. RUSSELL SMITH.

University of Pennsylvania.

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**Lavisse, Ernest.** *Histoire de France depuis les Origines jusqu'à la Révolution.* Tome Neuvième I. La Règne de Louis XVI par H. Carré. Pp. 441. Paris: Hachette et Cie.

This volume of M. Lavisse's well-known history of France is the work of three historians, but by far the largest part of the book is by M. Carré.



He contributes the divisions on Louis XVI and his efforts for reform, on his foreign policy, on the social life of the reign, and the three chapters on what he calls the "Agony of the Ancient Régime." M. Sagnac writes only the chapter on the "Eve of the States General, December, 1788, to May, 1789," while M. Lavissee supplies the chapters dealing with the "Conclusions sur les Règnes de Louis XV et de Louis XVI."

As a rule, the division of labor in this work has not resulted in quite so conspicuous a lack of harmony as in this instance. The remarkable degree of unity in the other volumes in spite of the fact that they are frequently the product of co-operation has been a matter of favorable comment. In this instance, however, one cannot refrain from expressing the wish that M. Carré, whose treatment of the economic aspects of the Old Régime is so excellent, had also been asked to do the concluding chapters. The probabilities are that the more deep-seated social and economic evils of the Ancient Régime would have received recognition as causes of the revolutionary development somewhat more in accord with their real significance. Too much attention is given to the purely personal by M. Lavissee. The evils from which France was suffering, were according to him, due mainly to the inefficiency of the King. "La cause principale de la ruine de la royauté, ce fut le manque du roi," and from this came "l'inachèvement du royaume," and "la diminution de la puissance française." "La Crise" so clearly and tellingly treated in the last chapter is brought on by the King himself. Had Louis XIV and his successors played their part well instead of badly, there would still be a throne in France.

Whether this be so or not does not concern us here, but what is of importance is that in the conclusion of the volume we see altogether too little evidence of the play of factors which the earlier parts of the book prepared us to expect. Economic and social conditions, not to speak of the great intellectual movements of the Ancient Régime, dominate the course of events as M. Carré presents it, and should dominate them in the summing up also, quite regardless of the fact that the King and his court chose to live their artificial life at Versailles separated from the real life of the nation.

But this is only a general objection to a volume which is unusually meritorious and a fitting conclusion to the great work as a whole.

At the time of this writing the index volume has appeared and we now have a history of France which in point of scholarship as well as attractiveness in literary style belongs among the foremost works of its kind in any country. Indeed it would be a real contribution to the pleasure and profit of the large body of English readers to publish a translation at an early date. Similarly it is to be hoped that M. Lavissee and his collaborators will carry the work on through the Revolution and the Nineteenth Century. In M. Aulard's "Histoire Politique de la Révolution Française," we have the political development of the earlier period adequately treated by a great scholar, but the social and economic phases of the Revolution are not dealt with in his volume. For the history of the last century in France, no treatment of the breadth and scholarship of the work before us exists.

WILLIAM E. LINGELBACH.

*University of Pennsylvania.*



**Monroe, Paul.** (Ed.). *Cyclopedia of Education*. Vol. II. Pp. xi, 726. Price, \$5.00. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

The present volume illustrates the difference between the philosopher who has thought out the relations of his subject to education, and the philosopher who has not. In a seventeen-column article on "Ethics and Education," Professor Woodbridge, of Columbia, has written a sketch of the development of Ethics. There is little in the article to warrant the words "and education." They should have been omitted. True, there is a gentle bias towards education, and the word is twice used with respect in the body of the essay, once in the case of the Sophists, the other in connection with Plato's *Republic*. Near the close, the author mentions some ethical bearings on education that it would have been well to show, but which have been left to the reader's inference. With the slight exceptions mentioned, any sketch of the history of Ethics would have done as well. Thus, in this work one of the most important aspects of education remains a blank. Far different is the case with what John Dewey of the same university has written in this volume. Nothing is touched that is not made to illuminate the field of education upon which it impinges. Had this educational philosopher written the article on Ethics, we should have had an ethical chart for sailing on all seas. For example, in a few lines, he asks, what are the ends of education? Do they lie within or without the subject? Reflection shows that things which might be ends for education find their own ends in education quite as much. In the discussion on "Freedom of Will," Dewey shows that education has these three functions to perform: (1) To keep plasticity of mind alive—"Even a good habit must be flexible;" (2) To confirm preferences—"Nothing is more fatal than indifference;" (3) To make preferences reasonable. Other articles by Dewey are: Environment and Organism, Effort, Education, Democracy and Education, Definition, Deduction, Culture-Epoch, Theory, Course of Study, Control, Comparison, etc., etc. That this *Cyclopedia* is indispensable to the progressive teacher is due to this scholarly application of the fundamental sciences to the problems of education as illustrated in the contributions of Dr. Dewey and the great majority of his colleagues.

Among the contributors are found the names of Angell, Compayré, Goddard, Hibben, Jastrow, Jenks, Judd, Lodge, Pillsbury, Sadler, Sargent, D. E. Smith, Suzzallo, Turner. These are random selections from the one hundred nineteen contributors to this volume.

Nobody has tried to interpret education as a whole from the economic standpoint.

CHARLES DEGARMO.

Cornell University.

**Perkins, J. B.** *France in the American Revolution*. Pp. xix, 544. Price \$2.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1911.

When Mr. Perkins died in 1910 this book had been nearly completed. The work of final revision and preparation for the press was done by Mrs. Perkins, with the help of Dr. J. Franklin Jameson of the Carnegie Institu-



tion, Prof. C. H. Van Tyne of the University of Michigan. A fitting introduction to the volume is given by the French ambassador at Washington, M. Jusserand. Mr. Perkins seems not to have made a study of original archives but to have based his work upon biographies, letters, and the published collections of original materials. The book is scholarly and interesting. As in his larger works Mr. Perkins here shows a mastery of dramatic arrangement, of clear perspective and of keen characterization that cannot be too highly commended. As far as possible in the scope of the volume, the actors tell their own story in apt quotations.

The weakness of our situation at the beginning and throughout the Revolution is shown, resulting as it did from lack of centralization, from economic mistakes, and from a patriotism largely embryonic. "Prosperity not only brings happiness but it develops virtues,"—patriotism among others. Surely the unfaltering courage of Washington must have yielded ultimately to British stupidity of those long years had not French arms, money, soldiers and ships come to our aid as they did. The story of American missions to France is well told; blundering but well-meaning Silas Deane, troublemaking Izard and Lee, pugnacious Lawrence, Jay and Adams, and the suave, politic Franklin who must truly have possessed the philosopher's stone, so successfully did he inveigle money from impoverished French coffers. "Hortalez & Co." furnish an interesting chapter, though an uncomfortable one to an American conscience. We have all been taught that France fought England because of the opportunity to pay off old scores, but we need to be reminded of the enthusiasm of the French masses for liberal ideas that influenced even a monarch like Louis XVI to champion a republican cause. Vergennes, as his foreign secretary, promised to make no peace with England till we were free, and the promise was kept faithfully. There is a charming picture of the young Lafayette—ambitious—but brave, generous and lovable. Of our other French friends it is sad to find how many of the young aristocrats who fought for us died on the scaffold as victims of the French Revolution; while most of those who gave us financial aid died impoverished. The French monarchy itself perished bankrupt a few years later after having spent 772 millions on a war from which it had gained very little. The French alliance with America was, according to Florida Blanca, prime minister of Spain, worthy of Don Quixote. "But the instincts of the French nation were right; they assisted a people to gain their freedom; they took part in one of the great crises of modern progress, they helped the world in its onward march. For nations, as for individuals, that is the greatest work."

WM. E. LINGELBACH.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

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**Plunkett, H.** *Rural Life Problem in America.* Pp. xi, 174. Price, \$1.25.  
New York: Macmillan Company.

Just before we get to the end of our epoch of giving away free farms, we discover that we have a rural problem. It is fortunate that we can have a Rural Problem Doctor come and prescribe for us. Speaking from successful experience, Sir Horace Plunkett has been able to give us a valuable little



book worthy of wide reading by those interested in rural economics or sociology. It is suggestive, and most emphatic in its kernel idea of the need of organization.

"Twenty years ago the pioneers of our rural life movement found it necessary to concentrate their efforts upon the reorganization of the farmer's business . . . Our message to Irish farmers was that they must imitate the methods of their Continental competitors, who were defeating them in their own markets simply by superior organization. After five years of individual propagandism, the Irish Agricultural Organization Society was formed in 1894 to meet the demand for instruction as to the formation and the working of co-operative societies, a demand to which it was beyond the means of the few pioneers to respond.

"Speaking from administrative experience at home, and from a good deal of interested observation in America, I am firmly convinced that the new rural education is badly handicapped by the lack of organized bodies of farmers to act as channels for the new knowledge now made available. . . The truth is, American farmers have had the will to organize, but they have missed the way.

"The political influence of the farming community has for this reason never been commensurate either with the numerical strength of its members or the magnitude of their share in the nation's work. . . And not only political impotence, but political inertia, result from the lack of organization."

But he thinks organization is far more important than mere political leadership and crop making. "The thousands of young men who are now being trained for advanced farming too often have to restrict the practical application of their theoretic knowledge to the home circle, which is not always responsive, for a man is not usually a prophet in his own family. It is here that the educational value of co-operative societies comes in; they act as agencies through which scientific teaching may become actual practice, not in the uncertain future, but in the living present. A co-operative association has a quality which should commend it to the social reformer—the power of evoking character; it brings to the front a new type of local leader, not the best talker, but the man whose knowledge enables him to make some solid contribution to the welfare of the community."

J. RUSSELL SMITH.

*University of Pennsylvania.*

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**Richard, E.** *History of German Civilization.* Pp. x, 545. Price, \$2.00. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

The field of German political history is rather barren in English. When we have mentioned Atkinson, Henderson, Bryce, Tuttle, Longman and Gardiner (omitting the translations) the list is almost complete (John Savage's *Complete History of Germany* has been out of date for two centuries and Sime hardly deserves a mention).

Histories on German Civilization are even less in number. We have indeed Franke's *Glimpses of Modern German Civilization* and the same



author's splendid book, *Social Forces in German Literature*, but the latter work is an attempt to "give a coherent account of the great intellectual movements of German life as expressed in literature" and to "trace the history of the German people in the works of its thinkers and poets," and a history of German Civilization proper has been wanting up to this time. The appearance of a book in English on this subject is, therefore, an event of some import and will be a matter of considerable interest to thousands in England and America, "to whom [speaking with Gardiner], from youth or from circumstances of education, German literature is a sealed book."

Dr. Richard attempts to give a general survey of German civilization from the earliest times down to our present day—in fact, he begins with the original "Scandinavian home of the Germans." That so vast a subject can not be treated in anything but a sketchy manner in some 500 pages is evident, and the specialist will not expect to find anything new in such a work unless it came from the hand of a Buckle or a Taine. Dr. Richards' treatise is naturally based on German accounts. It is not a brilliant paraphrase of these sources, but it is written in a clear, readable style (with little grace or elegance, however) and the laymen will find it well worth the reading.

The author has not always properly digested his sources nor is he always accurate, especially in his generalizations. He says, for instance: "Even if the runes are, as some bold writers claim, of Germanic origin and rather the source than the outcome of Mediterranean alphabets, there is no evidence that they were ever used for other than ceremonial and oracular purposes, or as dedicatory inscriptions on some weapon, ornament, or monument" (p. 30). The bold writers referred to belong to a forgotten age and the statement about the use of the runes is based on insufficient evidence (even though some German authorities may be found supporting this view). Runes were at one time extensively used. In the Egill Skallagrímsson's saga we find that the daughter of Egill is prepared to inscribe a song on wooden tablets; the *Rök-stone* contains part of a heroic poem; an old calendar, the *Skaane-law*, etc., are preserved in *runic* MSS.; Olaus Magnus (1490-1558) states that *runic* MSS. were preserved in Skara and other places.

He compares the wandering singers of the middle ages to "the literary Bohemians of to-day" (!); he ascribes to Heine the honor of introducing "the romantic grandeur of the ocean . . . into literature" (what shall we then do with the English, the Dutch and other poets who wrote about this grandeur long before Heine was born?) He repeats the antiquated theories of Scherer (though not so stated) about Germanic accent (the Germanic tribes were by no means the only ones to show "a tendency to revert [the accent] towards the beginning of the world." This was characteristic of the old Italic and the Celtic and it is the case in Finnish which accents the first syllable of every word); he states that *Ziu* (*Tyr*) "corresponded to Zeus or Jupiter" (p. 69), although he has the correct view on a following page (namely that "*Ziu* was . . . identified with Mars"); he affirms that Tacitus mentions the fact "that they [the Germans] had no images of their



gods," although Tacitus distinctly says in *his history* that the Germans carried "*signa deorum*" and "*effigies et signa*" into battle (in the *Germania* Tacitus indeed says that a certain tribe, the *Naharvali*, had no images) and from the account of Adam of Bremen we are certain that the Scandinavians had images of their gods; a sentence like this occurs on p. 40: "In the time of the Germans we must suppose that the majority of the Romans were armed with wooden spears, the points of which were hardened by charring"!

The spelling of proper names is not always consistent and might confuse the layman. Thus we find the forms *Köln* and *Cologne*, *Pytheas* of *Marseilles* and of *Massilia*; *Gothland* appears as *Götland*, *Visby* as *Wisby*; *Woden* (A. S. *Wodan*, O. E. *Woden*) is spelled *Woten*; the Icelandic *Holmganga* is written *holmgang* and *holmr* as *holm*, etc.

The above examples are taken at random from the first few chapters and tend to show the general weaknesses of the work—space does not permit the giving of a complete list of corrections.

We should like to see more of the private life of the Germans in the various periods, more about their manner of dress, their feasts, their medicine and doctors, their baths, their servants, the chase, etc. This might have swelled the book somewhat, but certain parts could be abridged (though this is a matter of taste) and the work is not entirely free from repetitions. Unfortunately a bibliography is also wanting. By giving a select list of books, pointing out the chief and best works in the bewildering mass of histories of German civilization in German, the author would have performed a great service to that rather large class of scholars and others who are not specialists in the field, but interested in the subject.

In spite of its shortcomings the book is a worthy effort and should have a large circulation, filling as it does a "long felt want." A second edition will give opportunity for enhancing its value by the removal of minor mistakes.

AMANDUS JOHNSON.

University of Pennsylvania.

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SILBURN, P. A. *The Governance of Empire*. Pp. xi, 347. Price, \$3.00. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1910.

The author, a member of the Natal legislature, has sincerely tried to assist "the average politician or man of affairs" to an understanding of many matters—such, for example, as "the insidious and dangerous growth of Socialism in the colonies" (p. viii). To this and other ends he ranges from the Achaian League to the Union of South Africa. The framers of the American constitution, he forgivingly agrees, were "but slightly conversant with the classics" (p. 3); indeed "the Achaians, though true democrats, were not believers in the twentieth century Socialistic doctrine of representation going with taxation" (p. 7). But as the "judicious and occasional strengthening" of the Roman Senate kept the democratic party in "the weaker position" so "patents of nobility will always keep Socialistic and Republican parties within safe bounds in the British Empire" (p. 23). The further helpful intentions of the writer, his sympathy with those who cannot go "first hand to many of the authorities it is so necessary to consult" have led



to this history from "a colonial view" in order to arouse among his "countrymen, in the United Kingdom," a greater "pride in the Empire." In this connection, therefore, he notes that in England "the Wars of the Roses had resulted in the dissolution of the monasteries" (p. 83), and that in Virginia Lord Delaware displayed the "spirit of self-sacrifice on the part of the aristocracy, a spirit of which a republic, possessing no aristocracy, can never find an equivalent" (p. 91). He also states that "on December 13, 1759, Wolfe captured Quebec" (p. 106) and that a few years later Warren Hastings "succeeded in completely establishing the supremacy of the British in India" (p. 119). So much for the first six chapters which are clearly historical in intent.

The next four deal with the governmental organization of the empire to-day. Though a loyal colonist, the author admits that the "rapid development (of responsible government) is not an unmixed blessing. It has borne that rank weed, untutored democracy; and democracy untutored is Socialism" (p. 176). In the case of Canada, however, although "American political methods" have occasionally been introduced "by a few unscrupulous politicians" the "wise and far-seeing policy of building up (in Canada) a colonial aristocracy" is accomplishing much good, especially "in keeping under the insidious doctrines of Socialism" (p. 204). As to the Union of South Africa the question is asked (p. 216): "Can it be that a hasty and illformed legislative union containing all the tokens of insincerity and ulterior objectives will yet prove a blessing in disguise?" Nevertheless the author is a "sort of" federalist.

The remaining seven chapters treat of sea power, defense, communications, commerce, the press, and imperial federation. On the last topic the author feels deeply that the proposal of federation should come from the mother country, though he appreciates that the liberal government at home is "out of sympathy with the oversea possessions" (p. 323), and their leaders "openly admit that territory outside of the United Kingdom is an unnecessary luxury" (p. 329). As a "nation Great Britain is rapidly giving way to other nations and falling into the rank of second class powers" (p. 329). The remedy is imperial federation, which, however, must also lead to Irish home rule. To the present British constitution an imperial senate should be added. Democracy in the colonies has developed because of the lack of an aristocracy, for a colonial is "never considered worthy of more than knighthood." Hitherto aristocracy has been merely a national asset at home. "By extending aristocracy to the Empire the ranks of Socialism would be gradually but surely weakened, and the bonds of Empire would be considerably strengthened" (p. 344). Is it possible that the author has not as yet been raised to the peerage, because he is not dangerous enough as a Socialist?

Want of space prevents notice of typographical errors, chiefly as to dates and names. But the book is dedicated to "those corner-stones of the British Empire the Ancient Universities of Oxford and Cambridge;" and it supplies a map "illustrating Imperial Communication by Wireless Telegraphy," though an index is lacking.

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**Swift, F. H.** *A History of Public Permanent Common School Funds in the United States, 1795-1905.* Pp. ix, 493. Price, \$3.75. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1911.

This book is a good example of the type of work which is being done by that group of scholars who are devoting themselves to the study of education. The author has brought together from sources which were not easily available the more important facts with regard to the history and present status of public permanent common school funds. This volume marks the first attempt to bring together and to interpret the facts in this field.

The book is divided into two parts. In part one the author discusses the early sources of school support, the importance of school funds in the development of a system of free public education, the sources, management, and loss of these funds. In part two is given a summary of the origin, present condition, and administration of permanent common school funds in each of the states, arranged alphabetically by states. This section of the work is intended primarily for reference.

In the more general discussion found in the first part of the volume, the author makes clear the importance of school funds not only from the standpoint of the aid which they have afforded in the establishment of the schools in poor districts, but also calls attention to the other objects to which these funds have been devoted and shows clearly the effect that they have had in the development of our public school system. Attention is called to the fact that the oldest aim of such funds was the abolition of the school tax. Later there developed a second aim, namely, to incite taxation and to bring about an equality of opportunity and burden throughout the state. The author calls attention to the necessity existing to-day for a more efficient management of public school funds, and suggests the need for an investigation concerning the present status of these funds throughout the United States.

The material throughout the volume is most adequately summarized in tables which enable one to discover readily the situation in any state, and to compare easily the practice among these various units. Any student of education interested in its fiscal aspects will find this volume a veritable mine of information; a book well arranged and well written.

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**Taussig, F. W.** *Principles of Economics.* Two vols. Pp. liv, 1121. Price, \$4.00. New York: Macmillan Company, 1911.

This latest comer in the field of general treatises on economics aroused great expectations, and, in the reviewer's opinion, those expectations will not be disappointed. The author states that the book is not written on the usual model of textbooks and is not designed to meet the needs of classroom instruction. This opinion seems correct, for the price, division into two volumes, a certain diffuseness in treatment, and the relatively large part devoted to practical problems, all militate against textbook use. But there is an



admirable clarity and definiteness of statement, which qualities, together with a wealth of illustration, will assure its wide use for reference.

In general arrangement and content, one first notices the absence of any separate treatment of consumption. Here Professor Taussig follows Mill—as he does in making his cross references by sections rather than pages. The ideas of utility, marginal utility, and diminishing utility, are brought into direct relation with price determination in the chapter on “value and utility.” As to the order of the main division of the subject, “Production” comes first, with “Value and Exchange” second, each division taking about one-tenth of the total space. Money and banking and international trade form the subjects of the next two books; and these are followed by distribution. Over one-fourth of the work remains and it is devoted to practical problems and taxation. The relatively great space given to the “book” on money, banking—especially banking—and crises, is perhaps the most notable point; though the length of the books on problems of labor and economic organization will also be observed. The space devoted to “Population” and the treatment of interest before rent are somewhat unusual.

As to the theory. Among other excellent features, the reviewer is struck by the wise definition of such elementary concepts as wealth and production, and the skilful handling of such points as the way in which cost of saving affects the supply of capital. The way in which difference in wealth distribution operates upon diminishing utility is also well handled, as is its relation to elasticity of demand. Purchasing power, we are told, must be included in the idea of marginal utility: marginal utility is a phrase used, for brevity, to indicate the complex conditions on which depends the price fetched by the last increment of supply. Yet, to the reviewer’s notion, too much potency is given to “marginal utility.” That pregnant phrase is given such a place that at points it might be used interchangeably with “value.” Then what light does it throw to say that value is “determined by” or “depends upon” marginal utility? Is it not unnecessary to call actual price the measure of utility—is it not confusing? (p. 124). The various “cases” of value (fixed supply, constant cost, etc.) are separately treated, so as almost to suggest that different forces operate and that a different manner of determination exists in each case; and some will be inclined to criticise this treatment even as Mill has been criticised.

The “enlightened” Ricardian theory of rent is stated with unrivalled lucidity, embracing a convincing treatment of the relation of rent to price and the difference between land and capital. The problem of interest determination is solved by the marginal-efficiency route, little attention being given to the *agio* concept. But the author denies the possibility of imputing a specific product to capital; for “capital is itself made by labor; it (merely) represents a stage in the applications of labor” (197). The influence of Böhm-Bawerk is uppermost. The theory of wages adopted is substantially the one which aroused considerable criticism at the 1909 meeting of the American Economic Association: wages is the discounted marginal product of labor. The emphasis of the fact that labor is a “future good” like capital is valuable; but it is not made clear how the author’s emphasis of the idea



that labor's specific product is inseparable is consistent with a determining marginal product. The reasoning smacks strongly of Ricardian influence at points (p. 205). Profits is treated as a special form of wages, the author deeming it impossible to draw a line between the two shares.

In questions of opinion and policy, Professor Taussig hits the nail on the head with a refreshing sanity of vision and common sense. It seems to the reviewer, however, that he is a bit hard on speculators.

LEWIS H. HANEY.

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THE ANNALS  
THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL  
AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

VOL. XL

MARCH, 1912

Country  
Life

Edited by ALMOND A. ANDERSON, American Academy of Political and Social Science, Philadelphia, Pa.

Entered at the Postoffice at Philadelphia, Pa., as second-class matter, 1900.



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